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Army Officers' Attitudes of Conflict Management

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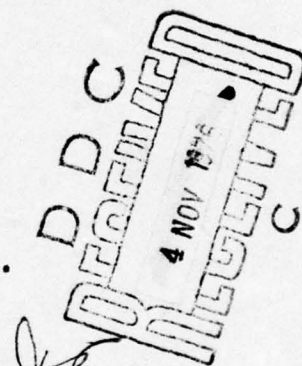
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The major conclusions, based on an extensive review of the literature concerning conflict management and its related fields of study, an exploratory analysis employing Hierarchical Clustering Schemes, and inferential tests of significance were:

1. The middle level career Army officers have significantly positive attitudes relative to the concepts of conflict management.
2. No difference exists in the attitudes of conflict management according to the sample's three branch groups: combat arms, combat support, and combat service support.
3. Officers with considerable staff time demonstrated a consistent cluster relationship to the attitudes of conflict management. Command time did not show a cluster relationship.
4. The trend toward a more flexible style of management is apparent and uniform in the middle level career Army officers.
5. The Rider-Coughlin Instrument, empirically designed using Hierarchical Clustering Schemes, proved to be applicable to large samples and easily analyzed with published computer packages.
6. Hierarchical Clustering Schemes determined the cluster relationships between the independent variables and the attitudes of conflict management. This exploratory method of attitude analysis identified several significant findings.

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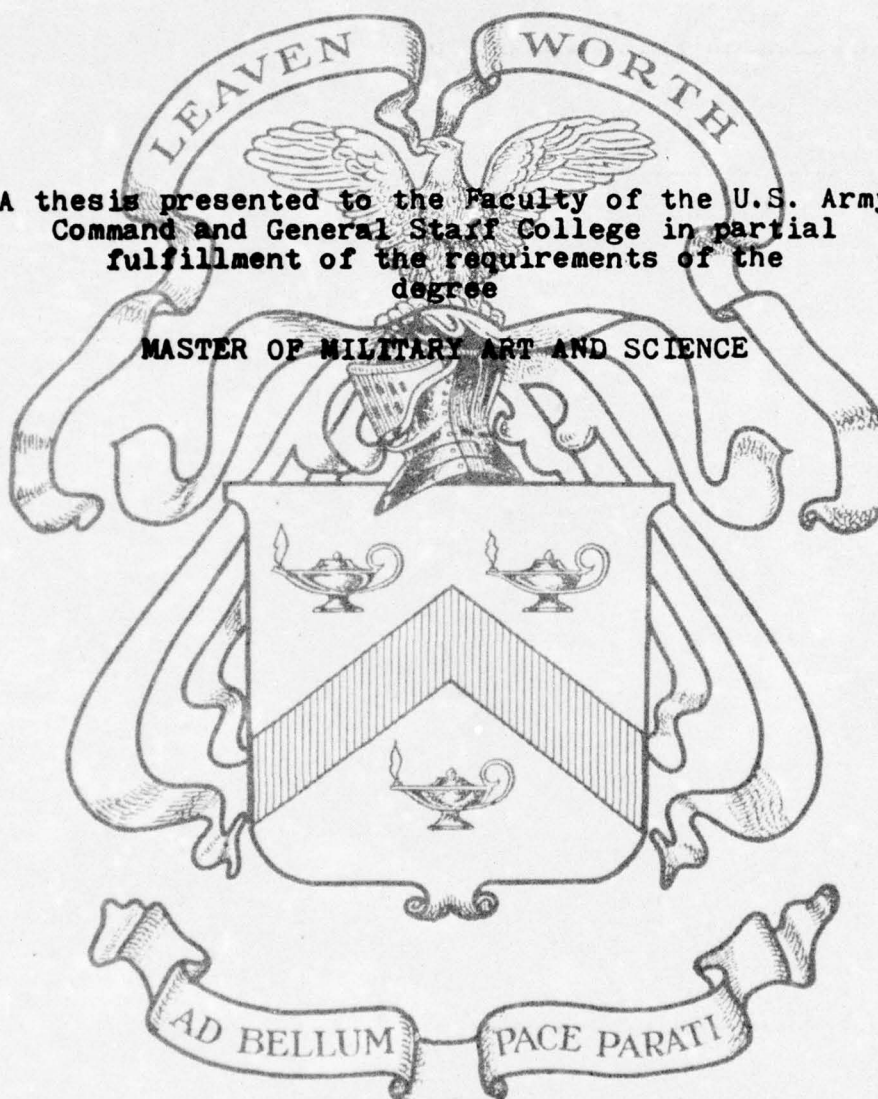
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A thesis presented to the Faculty of the U.S. Army
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MASTER OF MILITARY ART AND SCIENCE



Fort Leavenworth, Kansas
1976

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MASTER OF MILITARY ART AND SCIENCE

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The opinions and conclusions expressed herein are those of the individual student author and do not necessarily represent the views of either the U.S. Army Command and General Staff College or any other governmental agency. (References to this study should include the foregoing statement.)

ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study was to measure the attitudes of the middle level career Army officers relative to the concepts of conflict management. The scope of the study narrowed the view to the interpersonal and intergroup levels of conflict.

The major conclusions, based on an extensive review of the literature concerning conflict management and its related fields of study, an exploratory analysis employing Hierarchical Clustering Schemes, and inferential tests of significance were:

- (1) The middle level career Army officers have significantly positive attitudes relative to the concepts of conflict management.
- (2) No difference exists in the attitudes of conflict management according to the sample's three branch groups: combat arms, combat support, and combat service support.
- (3) Officers with considerable staff time demonstrated a consistent cluster relationship to the attitudes of conflict management. Command time did not show a cluster relationship.
- (4) The trend toward a more flexible style of management is apparent and uniform in the middle level career Army officers.
- (5) The Rider-Coughlin Instrument, empirically designed using Hierarchical Clustering Schemes, proved to be applicable to large samples and easily analyzed with published computer packages.
- (6) Hierarchical Clustering Schemes determined the cluster relationships between the independent variables and the attitudes of conflict management. This exploratory method of attitude analysis identified several significant findings.
- (7) The crux to the constructive management of conflict lies in the problem-solving approach within a cooperative atmosphere.
- (8) Certain managerial traits are more conducive to the constructive management of conflict. These traits facilitate and develop within a cooperative and mature atmosphere.

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CHAPTER I
CONFLICT MANAGEMENT AND THE ARMY

Introduction

The democratic society, by virtue of its openness to dialogue, must cope with a wide range of conflicts. The range of conflict varies from debate to war or from the intrapersonal level to the international level. Historically, the entire spectrum of conflict has been associated with democracy. "Political and social philosophers and theorists since the time of Aristotle have been unable or unwilling to write of democracy without also incorporating the concept of conflict into their writings (Ziller, et al., 1970, p. 1)." The democratic form of government stimulates controversy. Thus, one should accept the existence of conflict within our society.

Several authors (Boulding, 1961; Rider, 1973; Coser, 1974; Goodsell, 1974) noted that conflict is considered a given in our democratic society. Therefore, the individuals and groups within our democracy must also contend with conflict on a variety of levels. Contending with the destructive side of conflict, war or violence, and the constructive side of conflict, progressive change or innovation, is a dilemma of democracy and, in particular, the military organization. The military organization is affected by our democratic society (Moskos, 1974). Conflict exists in our society and in the military organization. The mission of the military

organization is primarily concerned with the conflict resolution of war or potential war, but a majority of the time and energy of the organization is spent on conflict situations within the organization.

The internal conflicts of the military organization can cause turmoil, thus lessening the efforts toward the primary mission. The importance of controlling or managing these internal conflict situations becomes quite apparent. The fact that conflict exists and can be undesirable, implies a necessity to prevent its distraction from the mission of the organization. Kelly (1969) expounded on the logic of controlling conflict.

In short, the logic of organizational conflict seems to be that conflict is inevitable, endemic to the organizational milieu, a necessary consequence of change, therefore, let us plan for this catholicity of conflict so that its regulation and control will optimize the outcome for the organization (p. 520).

Goodsell (1974) noted "that conflict is a fundamental ingredient of change (p. 236)." Changes in the military organization are often generated by changes in our society. Likert and Bowers (1972) concluded,

in every society, there seems to be a general trend toward establishing and maintaining a basic consistency in values, principles, and procedures among all of its different areas of activities; political, legal, governmental, educational, business, and military. When one area of activity, for whatever reason, develops a significantly better mode of operation, this improvement and the underlying concepts and philosophy upon which it is based is generalized sooner or later and applied to all of the other activities of that society (p. 104).

Some of the changes which characterized our democratic society in the 1960's and early 1970's have caused dramatic changes, and in turn conflict, in the military organization. This is true of organizations in general, but especially in the military. The aftermath of the Vietnam war, the all-volunteer force, a decline in status, a general weakening of morale, and a reduction in force have produced conflict situations peculiar to the military and in particular the Army (Moskos, 1974).

More than any other service, the United States Army, has had to contend with change and its resulting conflicts (Moskos, 1974). These changes have produced an Army involved "in a period of major organizational flux (Moskos, 1974, p. 17)." The emerging Army structure is permeated with interpersonal and intergroup conflict. Failure to manage these conflict situations may lead to undesired results. More important, management of conflict situations may produce positive or constructive results. Boulding (1961) stresses that the first step in learning how to resolve conflict is to view conflict constructively.

The Army structure views conflict situations through its command and staff organization. Applicable conflict situations may involve conflict between individuals within the organization, such as, staff members; conflict between an individual and a group or groups, such as, a commander and a minority group; conflict between groups,

such as, staffs drafting a budget proposal; conflict between an individual or group within the organization and an individual or group outside the organization, such as, a staff member at a congressional hearing.

The command and staff organization varies according to needs of the units within the overall Army organization. For example, a combat battalion command and staff is primarily composed of combat arms officers (Air Defense Artillery, Armor, Field Artillery, Corps of Engineer, Infantry). The command and staff organization is faced with accomplishing the primary mission of that organization while permeated with daily conflict situations or potential conflict situations. Demands on the commander's or unit's time may produce a conflict situation. Social problems in our society are potential conflict situations for the military organization. "Conflict is a pervasive and inevitable aspect of life (Deutsch, 1965, p. 5)."

The problem for the Army and the commander "is not how to eliminate or prevent conflict but rather how to make it productive, or minimally, how to prevent it from being destructive (Deutsch, 1965, p. 6)." The opinions or views of command and staff, at all levels, have a definite function in producing a constructive outcome of a conflict situation. "Leaders affect conflict by modifying the direction, magnitude, persistence, and unity or collective acts (Laswell, 1966, p. 215)." Conflict can be altered

in a manner useful to those who understand its potential productive capability. The methods of managing conflict may be learned, if the individuals are willing to learn. Boulding (1966) emphasizes "that the most important element in conflict management, therefore, is learning how to learn (p. 245)."

The members of the command and staff in the Army structure, once conscious of the existence of conflict and the knowledge of conflict management, may strip away many of the distractions of conflict and make it more useful. The resulting view of conflict would be more useful to both the individual and the military organization.

Clearly, the productive outcome of conflict situations is highly related to the goals of the Army. Coser (1974) suggests several arguments for the virtues and usefulness of conflict.

1. Conflict is a necessary ingredient in the development of a cohesive group to counter an antagonist or accomplish a desired goal.

2. Conflict is a central prevention of stagnation, and produces innovation and change that moves groups to improvements.

3. Conflict is a useful technique to allow individuals and groups extensive freedom in development of courses of action or policies, either by competitive choices or by less constraints.

The need exists to study the theories of conflict management in order to develop the most from a conflict situation. Each individual leader can affect conflict. The view of the leaders or

potential leaders in the Army toward conflict is extremely important in their willingness to learn and use the theories of conflict management. A positive attitude toward conflict management will greatly enhance the chance of a functional behavior (Fishbein, 1967).

Background

Prior to an inquiry into the theories of conflict management and attitudes of the Army leaders or potential leaders toward conflict management, a review of the conflicts influencing the Army and the career officer seems necessary. In conjunction with this review, a look at the Army's managerial style will identify the system used to manage conflict.

Recall "that conflict is a fundamental ingredient of change (Goodsell, 1974, p. 236)." The significance of conflict and change was keynoted by Alvin Toffler in his book Future Shock. Change is a social process that is increasing and reproducing itself at a pace greater than man can adjust. Conflict situations are becoming more prevalent. Several reasons for this phenomenon are of utmost concern to the military. Moskos (1974) has shown that conflicts, such as, social unrest and popular support, have had a profound affect on the military since World War II. These conflicts have produced several changes and conflict situations in the military fields of recruitment, training, and personnel. Moskos concluded, . . . that the Army is neither completely subject to societal changes over which it has no control, nor is it an autonomous

entity operating independently of the forces affecting the larger society of which it is a part (p. 17).

One of the leading forces of change, within the military, and in turn a creator of conflict, has been the increased use of technology. In a recent study, Coser (1974) suggests,

the emergence of invention and of technological change in modern Western society, with its institutionalization of science as an instrument of making and remaking the world, was made possible with the gradual emergence of a pluralistic and hence conflict-charged structure of human relations (p. 459).

The technological rise has had beneficial gains and disfunctional consequences on the Army. Beneficial gains are evident by improvements to accomplish its primary mission. It is disfunctional in that soldiers are required to be more technically qualified in a technological Army. The disfunction is relative, but the requirements have produced conflict situations for the Army.

The Army has drastically increased the number of specialized technicians in order to stay abreast of technological changes and the need for technological improvements. The resulting impact has changed the philosophical view and managerial style of some elements within the Army. Yarmolinsky (1971) explained that "technology has transformed the military into a bureaucracy in many ways more like a civilian society than the traditional military (p. 403)." Two noted authors clarified the change as a shift from the traditional or authoritarian approach to a more civilianized or flexible approach (Janowitz, 1960; 1964; Moskos, 1971; 1974). Moskos (1974) summarized

this thesis: The Army "will simultaneously display organizational trends which are civilianized and traditional (p. 28)."

Moskos further stressed that due to a rise in technological reliance, the Army branch groups (Combat Arms, Combat Support, and Combat Service Support) have changed their managerial patterns. Several authors (Janowitz, 1960; Yarmolinsky, 1971; Hauser, 1973; Moskos, 1974) emphasized that the changes in managerial style will be less visible in the combat arms branches than in the other more technical branches. They indicate that the combat arms branches will maintain an authoritarian approach, while the combat support branches (Military Intelligence, Military Police Corps, and Signal Corps) and the combat service support branches (Adjutant General's Corps, Finance Corps, Quartermaster Corps, Medical Corps, Dental Corps, Veterinary Corps, Medical Service Corps, Army Nurse Corps, Army Medical Specialist Corps, Chaplain Corps, Judge Advocate General's Corps, Ordnance, Women's Army Corps, and Transportation Corps) will move to a more flexible managerial style similar to the civilian sector. The shift will be most evident in the combat service support branches (Moskos, 1974).

Several studies have advanced the theory that the authoritarian approach in managerial style promotes conflict situations rather than a reduction or management of conflict. Nye (1973) stated, the greater the number and intensity of conflict-promoting individual characteristics, such as, authoritarian, and of

conflict-promoting interaction patterns, the greater the potential for conflict (p. 94).

The implication is that individual characteristics, which are influenced by the organizational management patterns and the organizational interaction patterns, dictate an influence in conflict situations or potential conflict situations (Likert and Bowers, 1970).

Given the ideas of Janowitz, Yarmolinsky, and Moskos, then the attitudes of the Army leaders or potential leaders should reflect the managerial style of the branch groups to which they are members. This reflection should also be evident in the Army officer's attitude of conflict management. The authoritarian style or the more traditional military style of management hinders and prevents the constructive use of conflict (Boulding, 1961; Nye, 1973; Rider, 1973).

The command and staff at all levels of the Army must contest with daily potential conflict situations. A study of the attitudes of Army officers relative to conflict management would have far-reaching implications. Are Army leaders viewing conflict constructively? Are the three branch groups viewing conflict management differently based on a trend of changing managerial styles noted by Janowitz, Yarmolinsky, and Moskos? Are the individual characteristics of leaders an important consideration in the assessment of the attitudes of Army officers relative to conflict management? These questions are important issues in the emerging Army structure. It is

important in that unmanaged conflicts have a tendency to become out of control and resulting in undesirable outcomes.

Equally important to the Army is the necessity of assessing the present view of its leaders toward the positive capabilities of conflict management. The primary mission of the Army is to be ready to fight when called upon to do so and win. Distractions from that mission, a deep concern to combat arms units, are detrimental to that mission. An awareness of the managerial style most conducive to conflict management and the strategies of conflict management could make distractions productive to the unit's goals and the Army's mission. An increase in the knowledge of how to control conflict constructively seems beneficial to the individual officer and the Army alike. Determining the view of the leaders or potential leaders of the Army toward conflict management is an important first step in developing constructive utilization of conflict.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study is to measure the attitudes of Army officers attending the United States Army Command and General Staff College relative to the concepts of conflict management. Officers selected as students of the Command and General Staff College are

among the middle level leaders of the Army, and most represent the middle management and future leadership within the Army.

The subject of conflict management is complicated and sophisticated. It also transverses many different fields of knowledge. The purpose of this study raises several questions, which encompass the relationship of related subject areas to conflict management. An examination of these questions will further clarify the purpose and justification of this study.

How does the organizational system of the Army affect conflict management? Organizations, like the Army, have designed their own systems to manage conflict. Each system relies on the interaction within its network of people and organizations to resolve conflict situations. "Each system and its corresponding interaction-network has its own characteristic way of handling conflict (Likert and Bowers, 1970, p. 27)." In an attitude measurement of conflict management, the view of the system will be an influencing factor.

What role does the individual officer play in conflict management? Every conflict, within the parameters of this study, requires an interaction among the individuals and groups within the Army through an "interaction-influence network (Likert and Bowers, 1970, p. 27)." The characteristics and managerial style of the individual officer are extremely influential in the constructive management of conflict. Individual officer attitudes are affected by the organization and its interaction-influence network.

What is the importance of an attitude in conflict management?

Allport (1967) stated that an attitude is a predisposition to action in a positive or negative way. The predisposition is related to a person's beliefs, behavior, and personality. In fact, the attitude is interwoven with a person's personality which contributes to a person's behavior (Lawless, 1972). A positive attitude of conflict management is a contributing factor in the constructive management of conflict.

How can an attitude toward conflict management be measured? The Rider Instrument was designed to measure the attitudes of individuals relative to various concepts of conflict management. After an extensive review of the field, Rider (1973) concluded that certain concepts, when on a scale, defined an attitude score. The concepts used by Rider were selected by nationally known experts, who determined those concepts most related to successful conflict management. The concepts were scored on Osgood's semantic differential, an attitude assessment instrument. Rider established a total score for each individual using both positive and negative concepts. The total score was a measurement of an attitude relative to the concepts of successful conflict management.

The transition, from the importance of conflict in general to the meaningful contribution of the individual officer in its management, has demonstrated the vital role of the individual officer in

conflict management. The officer is a product of his military environment. The organizational patterns and managerial style of the Army are also reflected in the attitude of its middle level career officers relative to conflict management.

Assumptions

The basic assumption of this study is that the attitudes of the Army officers relative to the concepts of conflict management are influenced by the Army's organizational pattern and its corresponding interaction-influence network.

Delimitations

The study was concerned with the determination of the attitudes of Army officers relative to the concepts of conflict management. A prediction of future behavior in conflict situations is outside the realm of the study.

The sample is representative of all officers in the United States Army who were selected for the Command and General Staff College. The selection process of all qualified officers determined those presently attending the Command and General Staff College. Any conclusions will be limited to the middle-level officers of the Army and not the Army as a whole.

Limitations

The Rider Instrument was developed to measure attitudes, not predict behavior. It is recognized that some authors feel the connection between individual attitude and managerial style is controversial and inconclusive. The relationship of attitude to behavior and managerial style is considered a limitation to the study.

Statement of Hypotheses

The specific purpose of the study is to examine the attitudes of conflict management as they apply to Army officers with eight to fifteen years of service.

The two general hypotheses, which will be discussed in detail in Chapter III, Methodology, are:

1. The attitudes of Army officers are either positive, negative, or neutral relative to the concepts of conflict management.
2. The attitudes of Army officers, according to branch group affiliation, relative to the concepts of conflict management are reflective of that branch group's managerial style.

The conventional method of hypothesis testing, based on a statistical inference, will be used to reject or accept the developed null hypotheses.

A second method, exploratory in nature, will also be applied to the attitude measurements. Attitudes may be affected by numerous variables. An empirical method is needed to group officers according to the variables that affect conflict management, without the conventional process of a hypothesis for each variable. Hierarchical Clustering Scheme (Johnson, 1967) is an empirical statistical procedure that will cluster the underlying structure of data as measured by the concepts of conflict management. Specific application is discussed in Chapter III, Methodology.

Definition of Terms

1. Conflict. For the purpose of this study, "conflict exists in situations in which parties must divide or share resources so that, to some degree, the more one party gets, the less others can have (Brickman, 1974, p. 1)."
2. Conflict Management. "The process of analyzing a conflict situation; revealing its key elements; and selecting and enacting a strategy with which to attempt a conciliatory settlement (Rider, 1973, p. 16)."
3. Strategy. Strategy is the use of a mechanism to obtain a desired outcome in conflict management.
4. Outcome of Strategy. An adaptive or maladaptive behavior (Cribbin, 1972), which in this study is considered a leader's decision.

5. Manager. A military officer attending the 75-76 Command and General Staff College, Fort Leavenworth, Kansas.

6. Attitude. "An attitude is a mental and mutual state of readiness, organized through experience, exerting a directive or dynamic influence upon the individual's response to all objects and situations with which it is related (Allport, 1967, p. 8)."

7. Conflict Management Instrument. An instrument which measures the attitude of managers "relative to concepts of successful conflict management (Rider, 1973, p. 17)."

Scope of the Study

A wide spectrum of conflict is present in our democracy and the military organization. This study will be concerned with that portion dealing with interpersonal and intergroup level conflict. Conflict within the individual may act as a catalyst for separate conflicts with another person or group. The internal individual conflicts, although briefly examined in relationship to attitude and personality, are considered universal with members of the Army, as with any organization. The scope of the study deals with intrapersonal conflict only as it becomes interpersonal and intergroup conflict.

This study is designed to be both descriptive and empirical. The traditional methods are followed as a base, but innovative

approaches to the problems of attitude determination and data reduction were utilized. The findings and recommendations, based upon the attitude measurement, are a beginning for future studies. It is hoped that additional research will be initiated.

Summary

The existence and increased pace of conflict in our society, and in turn the Army, has placed greater demands on the Army officer to successfully manage conflict situations. The Army officer can affect conflict situations to produce constructive gains for the individual and the Army. The positive view and knowledge of the strategies of conflict management will greatly increase the likelihood of a functional outcome.

The measurement of the attitudes of Army officers relative to the concepts of conflict management is an important step in the development of a healthy, system-wide, constructive view of conflict and its management. The justification for this study has been well documented in this chapter. Chapter one also outlined the basic theories and the scope of the research.

The following chapters will review the literature relating to the fields of conflict management and attitude, outline the methodology of the study, describe the findings, and report the recommendations and conclusions drawn from the data.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF THE RELATED LITERATURE

Introduction

To accommodate the purpose of the study, three major areas of review were deemed necessary. The first area is the literature related to conflict and conflict management. Two of the major difficulties in discussing conflict are the level and semantics considered. The definition of and the range of conflict must fit the context of the study. Conflict management, in turn, must meet the parameters established for conflict situations.

The second area is the literature concerned with the military organization, the Army structure, and the Army officer. This area was viewed as it pertains to the field of organizational theories, managerial styles, and conflict management.

The third area is the literature regarding attitude and attitude measurement. The relationships of attitude to beliefs, to personality, and to behavior were examined in detail. Additionally, the review investigated the connection of attitude formation in reference to membership in an organization. The different types of attitude measurement scales were reviewed, in particular, the semantic differential, which is used in the Rider Instrument.

CONFLICT

Overview

A difficulty in any discussion of conflict is its wide range of application. The level of conflict must be narrowed to the context of the study, then an appropriate definition, a problem in itself, may be designed. The various levels of conflict are intrapersonal, interpersonal, intragroup, intergroup, intranational, and international. Group conflict also encompasses organizational conflict. This study is concerned with interpersonal and intergroup level conflict.

Confusion further exists in that many terms in the literature are used interchangeably for different levels of conflict. This is particularly true of related terms which cause intrapersonal conflict. Smith (1971) stated that several terms are closely associated to conflict but unsimilar, such as, misunderstanding, aggressiveness, hostility, desire, frustration, competition, and tension. The above terms exist in potential conflict situations as underlying sources of conflict or in conflict situations as intensifiers or results of conflict (Bernard, 1968; Smith, 1971).

Conflict becomes more meaningful through an examination of the many definitions available. Boulding (1962) defines conflict,

as a situation of competition in which the parties are aware of the incompatibility of a potential position in which each party wishes to occupy a position that is incompatible with the wishes of the other (p. 5).

Boulding's definition is basically sound for the purposes of this study except that the literature is not in agreement that competition is a form of conflict. Smith (1971) argues that competition is structured to the point that the rules prevent conflict. An athletic contest is competition until rule infractions occur, then it becomes conflict. Additionally, competition may end in a tie. A tie is inconsistent with conflict, where "only one of the parties can win; the other must lose (Brickman, 1974, p. 5)." Boulding's definition becomes more applicable if the phrase "situation of resource scarcity (Bernard, 1968)" were inserted in place of "situation of competition (Boulding, 1962)."

Distinct definitions of conflict restrict the view of the researcher. Within this belief, Brickman (1974) summarized that conflict exists in situations in which parties (actors) must divide or share resources so that, to some degree, the more one party gets, the less others can have (p. 1).

The definition ignores the consideration of hostility or intra-personal conflict. Parties (persons or groups) need not be hostile towards each other to be vying for the same resources (Smith, 1971; Brickman, 1974). Let it suffice that the emphasis of the study will meet the parameters of the conflict definition by Brickman.

In addition to a clear understanding of a definition of conflict, the reader must understand the preconditions and relationships of conflict.

Several authors (Brickman, 1974; Smith, 1971) focused on the

elements necessary for a conflict situation, the preconditions or rule structures.

A synthesis of various theories of conflict (Williams, Bernard, Kerr, Sheppard, Dubin, Singer, Coser) by Smith (1971) developed five essential elements or preconditions of conflict. These were:

1. Conflict requires at least two parties.
2. Conflict arises from "position scarcity" and "resource scarcity." Opposed values are inevitable characteristics of conflict.
3. Conflict behaviors are those designed to destroy, thwart, or otherwise control another party or other parties.
4. Conflict requires interaction among parties in which actions and counteractions are mutually opposed.
5. Conflict relations always involve attempts to gain control of scarce resources and positions or to influence behavior in certain directions (pp. 8-9).

Brickman (1974) chose to distinguish conflict by three categories of structure. These were:

1. Unstructured conflict relationships. The parties are not bound by any rules.
2. Partially structured conflict relationships. Rules constrain certain behaviors but leave others to the free choice of the parties.
3. Structured conflict relationships. The parties are fully bound by rules (p. 7).

The five preconditions exist in all three structure levels of conflict. This is insufficient to predict conflict as the value of the resources, the threat, the alternatives, or other unknowns vary with each situation.

Certain variables are helpful in understanding a conflict situation (Deutsch, 1965). They are:

1. The characteristics of the parties in conflict;
2. Their prior relationships to one another;
3. The nature of the issue giving rise to the conflict;
4. The social environment within which the conflict occurs;
5. The interested audiences to the conflict;
6. The strategy and tactics employed by the parties in the conflict;
7. The consequences of the conflict to each of the participants and to other interested parties (pp. 3-4).

All or some of the above variables act on a leader forced with a conflict situation. Conflict need not be viewed as harmful. Indeed, conflict can be most useful to the leader. An understanding of conflict as a value to a leader is the first step toward the control of conflict.

The Value of Conflict

Often conflict is assumed to be wrong or bad. Deutsch (1965) stresses the positive aspects of conflict.

Conflict is a pervasive and inevitable aspect of life. Its pervasiveness suggests that conflict is not necessarily destructive nor lacking in pleasure. Conflict has many positive functions. It prevents stagnation, it stimulates interest and curiosity, it is the medium through which problems can be aired and solutions arrived at; it is the root of personal and social change (pp. 5-6).

Kenneth Boulding (1961) describes the pervasiveness of conflict as omnipresent. The fact that it exists and permeates our lives is a major consideration in calculating the value of conflict. "There is, however, a constant tendency for unmanaged conflict to get out of hand and to become bad for all parties concerned (Boulding, 1961, p. 1)." The implication is clear that conflict is either

positive or negative. This view is concluded by Rider (1973).

"Conflict in the democratic setting, although inevitable and on the increase, is not necessarily evil or undesirable (p. 27)." Several authors stress the positive value of conflict (Deutsch, 1965; Stagner, 1967; Rider, 1973; Coser, 1974). In summary, their studies have shown that conflict is a given in our society, and is considered neither good or bad. It is, however, best viewed as positive.

The problem, therefore, "is to see that conflicts remain on the creative and useful side (Boulding, 1961, p. 1-2)." The dilemma facing the leader "is not how to eliminate or prevent conflict but rather how to make it productive, or minimally, how to prevent it from being destructive (Deutsch, 1965, p. 6)." Deutsch (1965) further concluded that "it cannot be eliminated nor suppressed for very long (p. 6)."

The view that conflict enhances creativity is clearly expressed by Coser (1974). He stated that "conflict within and between groups in a society can prevent accommodations and habitual relations from progressively impoverishing creativity (p. 458)." The opposite, stagnation, exists in the absence of conflict.

Conflict is not a recent phenomenon and often creates changes which have been of great benefit to mankind. The history of mankind has produced certain checks and balances, rules, and social norms. These mechanisms "reflect the basic values and philosophy of that

society (Likert and Bowers, 1970, p. 10)." Our democratic society is permeated with conflict. The American society has and is being influenced by two revolutions: the industrial revolution and the scientific revolution (Ritchie, 1963). Revolution is a form of conflict (Smith, 1971). People and groups have used revolution to bring about a change in hopes of enhancement. The impact of conflict on society is further stated by Coser (1974).

Conflict not only generates new norms, new institutions, . . . , it may be said to be stimulating directly in the economic and technological realm (pp. 458-459).

Organizations within our society are also permeated with conflict and benefit from its existence. Through an analysis of the patterns of conflict, Scott and Mitchell (1972) state that internal conflict is beneficial to the extent that it promotes:

- a. The circulation of leadership. The advancement of new, vital leaders who are better equipped to reflect the values of the organization and to serve its purpose.
- b. The modification of old goals. The modification of previously held values to facilitate organizational adjustment in the face of change.
- c. The institutionalization of conflict. The organization to establish outlets so that people can "blow off steam" without damaging the structure of the organization (p. 191).

It is extremely important to understand that the above benefits are more relative "to the loosely structured rather than the rigid organization (Scott and Mitchell, 1972, p. 193)." Rigid organizations try to suppress and stifle conflict. Often the results are to intensify the conflict and produce undesired reactions.

The value of conflict is in its management. Conflict serves an important social function, but this view does not mean that conflict is always functional (Smith, 1971). In order to make conflict functional, one must develop a system to control the outcome. The management of conflict affords the best opportunity to reach a functional outcome.

THE MANAGEMENT OF CONFLICT

The Strategies of Conflict Management

Conflict may be considered a fundamental part of change. Goodsell (1974) advocates that conflict be managed and not suppressed or ignored.

Consequently, Rider (1973), after an extensive review of the literature on the strategies of conflict management noted that the leader, "must be capable of working through differences rather than suppressing or denying them (p. 95)."

This thesis is described by Bernard (1968) as the problem-solving approach. The strategy selected by a leader in a conflict is the leader's attempt to overcome the situation. Rider (1973) related strategy to a course of action. Often the leader has several strategies or courses of action available to him. Blake, Shepard, and Mouton (1964) concluded that three strategies were available.

1. Conflict inevitable. Agreement impossible.
2. Conflict not inevitable, yet agreement not possible.
3. Agreement possible in spite of conflict (p. 12).

Several authors (Brown, 1957; Cribben, 1972; Levy, 1972)

described the forenamed strategies as:

1. approach / avoidance
2. avoidance / avoidance
3. approach / approach

The only strategy that results in an outcome consistent with the findings of Bernard (1968); Rider (1973); Goodsell (1974) is number three: Agreement possible in spite of conflict or approach/approach. Therefore, it seems quite clear that managing the conflict or evoking a problem solving approach is the only long term answer to resolving conflict.

Deutsch (1965) identified several propositions regarding conflict resolution at the interpersonal and intergroup level.

1. Conflict over negatives is more difficult to resolve cooperatively than conflict over positives.
2. Conflict over large issues is more difficult to resolve cooperatively than conflict over small issues.
3. Conflict between parties that mutually perceive themselves to be equal in power and legitimacy is more difficult to resolve cooperatively than when there is a mutual recognition of differential power and legitimacy.
4. Conflict which threatens the self-esteem of the parties involved is more difficult to resolve cooperatively than conflict which does not threaten self-esteem.
5. Self-esteem is more likely to be threatened by conflict if a party to the conflict has little rather than much basis for self-confidence or if it is plagued by existing conflict or difficulty rather than successful in coping with its problems.
6. Conflict which is resolved by a more powerful tendency suppressing or repressing a weaker one often leads to much

energy being employed to maintain the repression and to the return of the repressed in disguised forms.

7. Some conflicts are inherently pathological and can best be handled by preventing their occurrence (pp. 18-18A).

Deutsch (1965) also constructed several general propositions based on Marx's theory of class conflict. Although based on an examination of industry conflict, these propositions are highly applicable to the military organization.

1. Any attempt to introduce a change in the existing mode of relationship between two parties is more likely to be accepted if each expects that the other side will gain at its expense.
2. Conflict is more likely to be resolved by a competitive process when each of the parties in conflict are internally homogeneous but distinctly different from one another in a variety of characteristics (class, race, religion, political affiliation, group memberships) than when each is internally heterogeneous and they have overlapping characteristics.
3. More generally, the more coincidental conflicts there are in other areas between two parties the less likely a conflict in any given area will be resolved cooperatively; the more cooperative relationships there are in other areas the less likely it is that they will resolve a conflict in any given area by a competitive process.
4. A competitive process of conflict resolution is less likely the more exchange of memberships there is between the two groups.
5. The institutionalization and regulation of conflict increases the likelihood of a cooperative process of conflict resolution.
6. Conflict is more likely to be regulated effectively when the parties in conflict are each internally coherent and stable rather than disorganized or unstable.
7. Conflict is more likely to be regulated effectively when neither of the parties in conflict see the contest between them as a single contest in which defeat, if it occurs, would be total and irreversible with respect to a central value.
8. The experience or anticipation of a hopeless outcome of conflict, such that nothing of value is preserved, makes the effective regulation of conflict less likely.

9. Conflict is less likely to be regulated effectively if the rules for engaging in conflict are seen to be biased and are thus, themselves, the subject of conflict (pp. 21-23).

The above propositions indicate that a cooperative process is more likely to regulate the conflict. In order for the leader to affect the cooperative process, a clear system of communication must exist. "Conflicts tend to be solved only if the participants communicate (Gordon, 1967, p. 71)." Gordon (1967) feels this is especially true in the field of race relations.

Several authors, as noted by Simkin (1967), stress the importance of communication.

The relation of communication to conflict is reciprocal; poor communications increase the probability of conflict, and conflict interferes with good communication (p. 91).

Barriers to communications between groups or individuals increase the likelihood of avoidance, therefore, failure to reduce the conflict issues (Blake, et al., 1964). Good communications are considered essential in the management of interpersonal and intergroup conflict.

A classic example of research in intergroup conflict was conducted in the late forties and early fifties by Muzafer Sherif (1956). Sherif selected various boys camps to organize groups and leaders in order to analyze conflict between the groups and between the leaders and their respective groups. Sherif then provided tasks to be accomplished and observed the results. The conclusions generated the theory of "superordinate" goals. "The

superordinate goals have a compelling appeal to both groups but which neither could achieve without the other (p. 58)." It necessitated the cooperation of both groups if the goal was to be achieved. The conclusions also generated propositions by Kelly (1969) on management of intragroup and intergroup conflict. The conclusions were:

1. Conflict is not primarily a result of individual neurotic traits but arise under given conditions even when people involved are well adjusted.
2. Intragroup co-operative and democratic procedures are not directly transferable to intergroup relations. On the contrary, intragroup solidarity was greatest when intergroup conflict was most pronounced.
3. Interaction between warring groups as equals in pleasant circumstances does not necessarily mitigate conflict.
4. Interaction between groups requiring co-operation and working toward superordinate goals helps to establish good relations between groups, but single episodes are not sufficient.
5. A number of co-operative situations involving working toward superordinate goals has a cumulative effect in mitigating intergroup hostility (p. 513).

Numerous models have been designed which emphasize the cooperative approach in conflict management. The cooperative approach in itself does not guarantee a functional outcome (Deutsch, 1973). The chance of a functional outcome is enhanced if the parties involved strive toward an atmosphere of cooperation. In a competitive atmosphere, the communication process breaks down, the differences or scope of the conflict tends to expand, and the attitude and behavioral intensifiers of conflict increase (Deutsch, 1973). The outcome most often will not address the real issues, heightens

misconceptions, and increases the likelihood of renewed conflict situations. The manager of conflict that is interested in a functional outcome does not want to intensify the conflict. Deutsch (1973) concluded that the tendency of conflict escalation

. . . results from the conjunction of three interrelated processes: (1) competitive processes involved in an attempt to win the conflict; (2) processes of misconception and biased perception; and (3) processes for cognitive and social consistency. These processes give rise to a mutually reinforcing cycle of relations that generate actions and reactions that intensify conflict (p. 352).

The recommended strategy centers on the ability to create a cooperative atmosphere. Clearly, this is the goal in conflict management.

Several authors have developed theories or models in which the cooperative atmosphere is stressed. Three models by the noted authors, McGregor, Likert and Bowers, and Deutsch will be discussed in detail.

McGregor's (1960) Theory X and Y were based on a view that management had about the nature of man. Theory X and Y are assumptions about human nature and behavior in the work environment. The assumptions are behind the decision process or managerial techniques which attempt to control patterns in subordinates. Theory X assumptions are :

- (1) The average human being has an inherent dislike of work and will avoid it if he can.
- (2) Because of this human characteristic of dislike of work, most people must be coerced, controlled, directed, threatened with punishment to get them to put forth adequate effort toward achievement of organizational objectives.
- (3) The average human being prefers to be directed, wishes to avoid responsibility, has relatively little ambition, wants security above all (pp. 33-34).

Basically, McGregor (1960) felt that some managers assumed that subordinates were Theory X people, therefore, treated people as Theory X people.

The Theory Y assumptions about human nature are:

- (1) The expenditure of physical and mental effort in work is as natural as play or rest.
- (2) External control and the threat of punishment are not the only means for bringing about effort toward organizational objectives. Man will exercise self-direction and self-control in the service of objectives to which he is committed.
- (3) Commitment to objectives is a function of the rewards associated with their achievement.
- (4) The average human being learns, under proper conditions, not only to accept but to seek responsibility.
- (5) The capacity to exercise a relatively high degree of imagination, ingenuity, and creativity in the solution of organizational problems is widely, not narrowly, distributed in the population.
- (6) Under the conditions of modern industrial life, the intellectual potentialities of the average human beings are only partially utilized (pp. 47-48).

Theory Y operates under the theory that if a manager provides the challenge and opportunity for growth then a subordinate will seek the higher levels of responsibility.

Engrained within Theory Y is the responsibility of the manager to provide the atmosphere in which the subordinate can develop. This atmosphere requires a sense of cooperation and trust. Theory Y is a basis for a theory of conflict management.

The manager's personality has been directly linked to the behavior of the manager under either Theory X or Theory Y assumptions (Argyris, 1971). The manager who creates a system based on the influence of Theory X tends to emphasize immature roles. Theory

X and Theory Y are not strategies of conflict management but influence the system a manager establishes in dealing with conflict situations.

Four Systems were designed by Likert and Bowers (1970) which depict models of behavior from Theory X to Theory Y. The Systems are models that demonstrate the affect of the entire organization in attempts at conflict management. The Army, as a major organization, falls somewhere within the System 1 to System 4 band (p.20). A summary of the Systems are as follows:

System 1: Subordinates are not at all involved in decision making; they receive minimum information; they deceive or distort information going to superiors; and they generally oppose organizational goals. Superiors do not trust subordinates, and rely on fear and threats to accomplish organizational goals.

System 2: Subordinates are occasionally consulted in decisions; they receive information that only superiors feel they need; they assure that most information going to superiors is distorted; and they resist partially the organizational goals. Superiors place little trust in subordinates, and rely on rewards and punishment, within an atmosphere of fear, to accomplish organizational goals.

System 3: Subordinates are usually consulted, but not involved in decision making; they receive information needed; they occasionally distort, but most try to be accurate in information

going to superiors; and they usually support organizational goals. Superiors place substantial trust in subordinates, and rely on rewards, punishment, and subordinate participation to accomplish organizational goals.

System 4: Subordinates almost always are involved in decisions related to their work; they receive all relevant information needed and wanted; usually there is no distortion of information going to superiors; and they fully support organizational goals. Superiors place complete trust in subordinates, and rely on participation to accomplish organizational goals (pp. 10-23).

Likert and Bowers (1970) integrated those principles which were used by the highest producing managers to form System 4 and the least producing managers to form System 1.

Each System has an interaction-influence network whose basic function is to deal with conflict.

The interaction-influence network of an organization is concerned with its structure and with the character of all such processes within the organization as those dealing with leadership, communication, motivation, control, decision-making, coordination, goal-setting, evaluation, and conflict management (p. 20).

After applying the characteristic patterns of conflict management to Systems 1-4, Likert and Bowers (1970) concluded that "System 4 provides the most effective means of managing conflict (p. 26)."

In System 1, communication is extremely guarded, deceiving and restrictive; conflicts are suppressed; parties ruthlessly strive

for power; and solutions are resisted.

In System 2, communications are quite guarded, often deceiving, and somewhat restrictive; conflicts are somewhat suppressed, or methods of win-lose confrontation and compromise are used; parties strive primarily for power; and solutions have some overt acceptance but covert resistance.

In System 3, communications are somewhat guarded and sometimes candid, sometimes accurate, and sporadic efforts are made to build effective channels; conflicts are resolved by win-lose confrontation, negotiation, and bargaining; parties strive for some mutual solution, but primarily power; and solutions have overt acceptance, but some covert resistance.

In System 4, communications are open, candid, accurate, and extensive efforts are used to build channels at all levels; conflicts are resolved by creative problem solving using consensus; parties seek mutually satisfactory solutions; and solutions have overt and covert acceptance with full implementation (pp. 24-25).

Once the inadequacies of an interaction-influence network become known, then efforts toward a better network will result in an improvement in an organization's ability to manage conflict.

The key to managing conflict is the development of the "creative thinking process (Deutsch, 1973, p. 360)." This method or

strategy of conflict management has been recommended by numerous authors (Blake, et al., 1964; McGregor, 1967; Bernard, 1968; Likert and Bowers, 1970, 1972; Deutsch, 1973; Rider, 1973). The creative process was summarized by Deutsch (1973) into several sequential and overlapping phases. These phases are:

1. An initial period that leads to the experiencing and recognition of a problem that is sufficiently arousing to motivate effort to solve it.
2. A period of concentrated effort to solve the problem through routine, readily available, or habitual actions.
3. An experience of frustration, tension, and discomfort that follows the failure of customary processes to solve the problem.
4. The perception of the problem from a different perspective and its reformulation in a way that permits new orientations to a solution to emerge.
5. The appearance of a tentative solution in a moment of insight, often accompanied by a sense of exhilaration.
6. The elaboration of the solution and the testing of it against reality.
7. Finally, the communication of the solution to relevant audiences (p. 360).

The process of creative thinking may break down due to the influences within an organizational system. McGregor (1967) indicated that working through the differences in a conflict situation required the assistance of subordinates. A manager, operating under Theory X assumptions, in a System 1-2 or competitive atmosphere may be expected to intensify the differences in conflict situations rather than striving for the creative process. Deutsch (1973) stressed that three psychological elements were key to the process:

1. The arousal of an appropriate level of motivation to solve the problem.
2. The development of the conditions that permit reformulation of the problem once an impasse has been reached.
3. The concurrent availability of diverse ideas that can be flexibly combined into novel and varied patterns (p. 360).

Likert and Bowers (1970) concluded that System 4 resolved conflicts by the use of the creative process. The type of manager that is most comfortable working in a System 4 atmosphere is an open, trustful, concerned for feelings, flexible type person (Argyris, 1971). It is quite apparent that the creative process of problem solving will be effective only when certain underlying conditions are established. These conditions require: (1) authentic communications, (2) attitudes of mutual trust and support, (3) and genuine respect for individual differences (McGregor, 1967, p. 193).

Negative strategies, such as blame, were considered by Rider (1973) as totally unacceptable to successful conflict management. In fact, Rider concluded that positive features of problem-solving were of extreme importance to the management of conflict. Consequently, he felt that leaders and organizations that successfully managed conflict would receive the following benefits:

1. Conflict prevents stagnation. It stimulates interest.
2. Conflict affords a means of venting frustration and airing grievances.
3. Conflict allows an organization an opportunity to test or assess its capabilities.

4. Conflict sometimes induces the modification of obsolete goals.

5. Conflict may at times enable new and more capable leaders to emerge (pp. 92-93).

In a study previously cited (Blake, et al., 1964), problem-solving was distinguished from bargaining or compromise.

The distinction is that intergroup problem-solving emphasizes solving the problem, not accomodating different points of view. This problem-solving approach identifies the causes of reservation, doubt, and misunderstanding between groups confronted with disagreement (p. 87).

Compromise was considered by Gross (1962) as the most popular form of resolution. He also stated that integration or problem-solving developed solutions that are acceptable without sacrifices.

A criticism of compromise is that the vital issues are overlooked or avoided. Blake, et al., (1964) concluded,

the concept of splitting differences is essentially pessimistic. A hallmark of this approach is that there is no "right" or "best answer." To be realistic, groups allow themselves to be led to agreements that only accommodate differences. Real issues are not likely to be solved (pp. 84-85).

The role of the leader in compromise or integration is discussed in detail by Lasswell (1966). Compromise produces an agreement that is clear in terms of gains and losses. Integration provides an agreement that does not necessitate gains and losses. The leader is directly involved in the attainment of the agreement. Lasswell (1966) further describes the leader's need for innovation.

The task of leaders is to invent or accept formulations that change the perspective of contending parties.
. . . leaders settle on statements that put these interests

in a new framework that gives prominence to common interests (p. 214).

Thus the leader plays a direct role in the development of the framework, issues, and agreements. The development is the use of the strategies of conflict management.

The Leader in Conflict Management.

The leader can acquire a sense of understanding or learning to determine a strategy in conflict management. Boulding (1966) stated,

an important element of the learning process in conflict systems is the development of what might be called "long-sightedness." A great deal of the development of what I called mature conflict behavior consists in the development of longsightedness, or the realization that the taking of the short-run advantage often results in a long-term loss because of the reaction of other parties (pp. 243-244).

Leader involvement becomes important when the conflict demands a decision. "Leaders affect conflict by modifying the direction, magnitude, persistence, and unity of collective acts (Lasswell, 1966. p. 215)." Leaders, therefore, must be able to learn from their experience and develop longsightedness. "The most important element in conflict management, therefore, is learning how to learn (Boulding, 1966, p. 245)." Despite this observation, Boulding notes, "the fact remains that some people learn and some people do not, no matter how much trouble they get into, simply because it is not easy to identify the source of the trouble in our own images, values, and behaviour (p. 244)."

A person's make-up or personality becomes increasingly more important in a leader's reaction to conflict. The outcome often depends on the attitude and personality of the leader.

The leader must develop self-trust under stress situations (Argyris, 1971). The leader must trust that the strategy of cooperative atmosphere and creative problem-solving is not perceived as being soft. Capable leadership at the base provides the structure and stability in conflict situations (Fiedler, 1967). The leader still has to direct and task subordinates, but the system in which the leader operates may or may not be conducive to the constructive management of conflict. Situations will require different kinds of leadership and strategy (Fiedler, 1967).

The key point is that leaders must learn to be flexible and open-minded. The leader that can develop a receptiveness to different ideas, and yet maintain the direction toward the desired goal, within a teamwork atmosphere, is best suited to develop a functional strategy of conflict management. The leader in a conflict situation is distracted and his contributions are lessened (Fiedler, 1967). Therefore, an atmosphere must exist where subordinates may recommend alternatives and relieve the pressure on the leader. The leader may then devote his efforts toward long term problem solutions, based on the cooperative efforts of his unit.

The leader and the system make up the interaction-influence network that manages conflict. Both may affect the outcome in a

conflict situation.

The Leader and the Organization in Conflict Management

The leader in a large organization has a complicated problem with communication and conflict management. The literature is not in agreement as to how this process is viewed by the leader. Likert and Bowers (1972) noted that the leaders reflect the values of the organization.

All of the component activities within an organization, such as its leadership, decision-making, communication, motivation, and control tend to be consistent, one with the other, as well as to reflect the values and organizational concepts of the society of which it is a part (p. 105).

When the ideas of Likert and Bowers are applied to the military, all officers may be expected to reflect a consistent view of conflict management. Variations occur, but generally the military officers, influenced by their personal characteristics, "tend to be consistent" with the Army's view of conflict management.

Katz (1961) proposed that differences exist within large organizations and the leaders because sub-systems within the organization view conflicts and its management differently.

Many social systems or organizations have built-in conflicts which interfere with the communications and strategies of conflict management. Katz (1961) developed three fundamental types of

built-in conflicts. These are:

1. Functional conflict induced by various sub-systems within the organization (p. 11).

In terms of the military organization, the sub-systems of command and staff are interested in maintaining the status quo of personnel, training, and the standards. These people face inward in the organization. People in the procurement, combat development, or political liaison fields face outward and develop a different set of potential conflicts.

2. Struggle between functional units in direct competition with one another (p. 11).

Levels of command compete against one another for recognition, which often is not related to the structure, but has the potential for conflict.

3. Hierarchical conflict stemming from interest group struggles over the organizational rewards of status, prestige, and return (p. 12).

In the military, with its rigid hierarchy or rank and command, vested interest in each group's interest or individual returns are more present, and a source of hierarchical conflict.

Katz (1961), therefore, disagrees with Likert and Bowers (1972) as to the view Army officers have on conflict and its management. According to Katz's theory, the sub-system of the Army, closest to the organizational mission, would have a different view of conflict than the sub-systems associated with an outward activity.

Regardless of the differences in theory, both concur on the importance of successful conflict management. The difference is critical, however, in the application of the basic philosophy of the Army and its leadership. The view of Army officers toward conflict management is a reflection of that philosophy. Likert and Bowers (1972) concluded,

. . . the management of disagreements and conflict reflects its basic philosophy, values, and social system as do all of the other principles and procedures employed by organizations within that society (p. 105).

The study of the military organization may reveal that a different set of potential conflicts produce different views of conflict management (Katz, 1961). Likert and Bowers (1972) concluded that organizations ". . . maintain internally consistent procedures (p. 105)" in their management of conflict. Therefore, a review of the make-up of the military organization may present consistent or inconsistent traits or values of not only the organization but the leaders within the organization.

THE MILITARY ORGANIZATION

Overview

The contradictions and conflicts, which exist in a democratic society, have an impact on the military. "It is small wonder that the soldier struggles with such contradictions, for he himself is

part of those contradictions (Kemble, 1973, p. 202)."

Yarmolinsky (1971) suggested that the military organization is part of and engrained in the American democratic society. The military has an impact on specific areas of American society. They are different, yet overlapping impacts:

1. As it affects the lives of individuals;
2. As it affects the style and temper of society;
3. As it affects the range of alternatives open to political decision-makers;
4. As it affects the decision-making process itself (p. 5).

The affects are changing the military and consequently, causing conflict within the organization. Some of these changes are the all-volunteer force, budget cuts, and the trend toward civilianization of the organization (Yarmolinsky, 1971).

Traditionally, military organizations are considered relatively rigid and centralized (Janowitz, 1960; Lindblom, 1965; Yarmolinsky, 1971; Moskos, 1974). This view is common among many authors. "It is common to point out that military organization is rigidly stratified and authoritarian because of the necessities of command and the possibilities of war (Janowitz, 1960, p. 8)."

The military structure, as a result of change in our society, is undergoing organizational flux (Moskos, 1974). The changes have produced variations in managerial style. This view is consistent with Janowitz (1960) who predicted many of the changes present in the military today. One of his hypotheses was that the trend of the military was away from rigidity and authoritarian.

He stated,

there has been a change in the basis of authority and discipline in the military establishment, a shift from authoritarian domination to greater reliance on manipulation, persuasion, and group consensus (p. 8).

Yarmolinsky (1971) further depicted the closeness of the military to a large bureaucracy. "The military environment has the features of any large-scale bureaucracy, including exercise of authority and the special characteristics of preparation for combat, but a modern managerialism and a pragmatic sense of the limits of authority have come to pervade wide sectors of the military structure (p. 402)."

Several authors agree that the military is shifting to a more modern managerial approach. A military organization based on a rigidly stratified structure is considered a poor system in which to manage conflict. The leader often is viewed as wrong if the decision is wrong. The characteristic of centralized decision-making in the military has been criticized by Lindbloom (1965) because resulting errors are considered incompetent. Therefore, wrong decisions have added loss by being viewed as loss of values.

Military decision systems, being highly centralized, illustrate the possibility that central decisions will not simply err in that they achieve a poor weighing of values in conflict, but will commit errors that sacrifice all the conflicting values (p. 234).

The centralized decision making process is shifting to a more flexible structure. The military commander . . . "must develop a capacity for public relations, in order to explain and relate his

organization to other military organizations, to civilian leadership, and to the public (Janowitz, 1960, p. 10)."

The Army's Interaction-Influence Network

The United States Army, as part of the military organization, is moving toward a more flexible managerial style. Moskos (1974) noted that the Army was "converging with the structures and values of civilian society (p. 25)." The trend toward a more flexible managerial style was also a trend away from authoritarian (Janowitz, 1960; Moskos, 1974).

Moskos (1974) noted several areas in which the Army was involved in a less authoritarian approach.

1. Changes in disciplinary procedures
2. Human relations councils
3. Increased dependency on a civilian force
4. Civilianization of professional standards
5. Change in Service Academy instructions toward a more liberal arts program
6. Less authoritarian approach to discipline (pp. 24-35).

Hauser (1973) advocated the creation of two armies; one a specialized force for fighting; the other composed of support units configured like civilian organizations. Perhaps the first step in this direction is the Officer Personnel Management System (OPMS). Hauser concluded,

under this system, officers would be separated fairly early in their careers into a large number of specialists and a relatively small number of generalists - the latter might

even be called "command specialist." As officers advance in grade and age, the number of commands at their level diminishes, so the number of those selected as commanders would also decrease (p. 219).

Moskos (1974) has explained that the Army will display two features; a traditional and civilianized.

Traditional or divergent features in the Army will become pronounced in combat forces, labor-intensive support units, and other front-echelon units (p. 28).

. . . noncivilianized or convergent compartments in the military system will be accelerated where functions deal with clerical administration, education, medical care, logistics, transportation, construction, and other technical tasks (p. 28).

The reason most often cited in the literature for the internal division is the increased reliance on technology. Katz (1961) reasoned that the internal divisions and divergent functions of an organization produce sub-systems which view conflict differently.

The authorities on the military organization, reviewed in this study, have outlined an emerging Army structure that is diverse in managerial style. The attitudes of the Army officers relative to conflict management are either a reflection of the Army's organization as a whole and consistent (Likert and Bowers, 1972), or a reflection of the sub-systems within the Army and diverse (Katz, 1961). The attitudes of Army officers are influenced by the organization. The change in the managerial style, as a result of changes in our society, has affected the attitudes of the military

(Moskos, 1974). This change may be uniform to all officers or it may affect some sub-systems more than others. In some areas, the attitude change may be more apparent than in other areas. Yarmolinsky (1971) emphasized that the attitude change may be most apparent in the enforcement of discipline.

Military attitudes toward disciplinary rules and their enforcement have undergone some changes in recent years. The military has been affected by the inevitable bureaucritization of its personnel functions, and has discovered that absolute demands for conformity are not always the best method for high achievement. (p. 402).

The above attitude change indicates a more flexible style of management. The attitude relative to conflict management may reflect a similar indication. How can statements about Army officer's attitudes of conflict management be determined? First, a detailed review of attitude theory and meaning in general is deemed necessary.

THE ROLE OF ATTITUDES

Attitude Meaning

"Traditionally, attitudes have been viewed as predispositions to behave in a characteristic manner with respect to specified social objects or classes of such objects (King and McGinnies, 1972, p. 8)."

Several theories were reviewed by Allport (1967) to determine

a complete and functional definition of an attitude. Allport (1967) concluded that "an attitude is a mental and mutual state of readiness, organized through experience, exerting a directive or dynamic influence upon the individual's response to all objects and situations with which it is related (p. 8)." Allport (1967) also concluded that an essential feature of an attitude was a "preparation or readiness for response (p. 8)."

The field is not conclusive that an attitude is a predisposition to response, but most concur that an attitude is a predisposition (Rokeach, 1969). Rokeach (1969) further states that "an attitude is a set of interrelated predispositions to respond (p. 119)."

Sherif and Sherif (1967) have explained what is meant by an attitude.

When we talk about attitudes, we are talking about what a person has learned in the process of becoming a member of a family, a member of a group, and of society that makes him react to his social world in a consistent and characteristic way, instead of a transitory and haphazard way. We are talking about the fact that he is no longer neutral in sizing up the world around him: he is attracted or repelled, for or against, favorable or unfavorable. We are talking about the fact that his behavior toward other persons, groups, institutions, and nations takes on a consistent and characteristic pattern as he becomes socialized (p. 2).

Attitudes, then, refer to what an individual is or is not in relation to a family, group, issue, or object. This relationship also has direction.

Sherif and Sherif (1967) indicate the direction as either favorable or unfavorable. Lawless (1972) defines an attitude "as a person's readiness to respond toward a certain object, or class of objects in a favorable or unfavorable manner (p. 166)." Allport (1967) further states that "the double polarity in the direction of attitudes is often regarded as their most distinctive feature (p. 8)."

The direction, then, is either a positive or negative predisposition for response. Several authorities (Osgood, Suci, Tannenbaum, 1957; Allport, 1967; Fishbein, 1967) concluded that in addition to a positive or negative response, a neutral response was indeed possible. Fishbein (1967) summarizes this view.

Thus with respect to any object, an individual has a positive, negative, or neutral attitude; that is, there is a mediating evaluative response associated with every stimulus (p. 289).

The amount of direction is indicative of an individual's belief in a family, group, issue, or object (Fishbein, 1967). Osgood, et al., (1957) described an attitude in terms of not only a direction but intensity.

Direction of a point in the semantic space will then correspond to what reactions (positive or negative), are elicited by the sign, and distance from the origin will correspond to the intensity of the reactions (positive or negative) (p. 27).

Attitudes, then, give meaning in direction (positive,

negative, or neutral) and intensity (how positive or how negative).

Attitude and Personality

Sherif and Sherif (1967) stress the existence of a "close parallel between attitude formulations and personality formulations (p. 180)." Thus a relationship does exist between personality and attitude. This relationship is explained in detail by Rokeach (1969).

Virtually all theorists agree that an attitude is not a basic, irreducible element within the personality, but represents a cluster or syndrome of two or more interrelated elements. The elements are underlying beliefs (p. 112). . . . all beliefs are predispositions to action, and attitude is thus a set of interrelated predispositions to actions organized around an object or situation (p. 113).

"Attitudes are related to, but to be distinguished from 'personality'; and related to, but to be distinguished from, 'culture'. 'Personality' refers to the total organization of internal psychological functioning (Jahoda and Warren, 1966, p. 9)."

The literature, as pointed out by Rokeach (1969), is ambiguous on the exact relationships of attitude and personality, except to say they are related.

Lawless (1972) states that "attitudes and personality are interwoven and, in the broad sense, the structure of a person's personality can be considered as organized around a central system

of values made up of related attitude clusters (p. 168)."

According to Jahoda and Warren (1966) the type personality may be indicative of particular clusters of attitudes.

. . . many investigators have examined the idea that the nature and content of a specific attitude is related to an individual's personality, and have found much confirmatory evidence (p. 10).

Prejudice attitudes, conservative political attitudes, and religious beliefs have been linked with the authoritarian personality (Argyle, 1966).

Bem (1970) describes the differences between the rigid or authoritarian personality and the flexible or nonauthoritarian personality. Bem revealed,

He sees the world divided into the weak and the strong and is power-oriented in his personal relationships - submissive and obedient to those he considers his superiors but contemptuous and authoritarian toward those he considers inferior. The nonauthoritarian, on the other hand, tends to be affectionate and love-oriented in his personal relationships. The authoritarian finds it difficult to tolerate ambiguity and tends to hold highly conventional values; there was some evidence that he is likely to be politically conservative (p. 22).

The attitude and personality of a manager influenced by Theory X assumptions is consistent with the authoritarian. This type person finds it quite difficult to be open and communicative (Argyris, 1971).

Attitude and Beliefs

Attitude is also related to beliefs. Several studies were noted by Fishbein (1967) "that an individual's attitude toward any object is a function of his beliefs about the object and the evaluative aspects of those beliefs (p. 397).

The importance of beliefs in determining attitudes was stressed by Fishbein (1967).

That is, any belief that is present in the individual's habit-family-hierarchy has an evaluative mediating response associated with it (i.e., all beliefs have evaluative aspects), and thus it will contribute to the individual's attitude. In addition, it seems reasonable to assume that the strongest beliefs about an object that an individual holds are those beliefs that serve to define and describe an object for him, that is, descriptive beliefs. Because these beliefs are likely to be high in the individual's hierarchy, they probably serve as some of the most important determinants of attitude (p. 396).

Rokeach (1969) explains that ". . . all beliefs are predispositions to action, and an attitude is thus a set of interrelated predispositions to action organized around an object or situation (p. 113)." Rokeach concluded that each belief within an attitude organization is conceived to have three components: cognitive, effective, and behavioral (p. 113-114).

After an extensive review of recent research, concerning attitude and beliefs, Rokeach stated,

all such theories share the common assumption that man strives to maintain consistency among the cognitive, affective, and behavioral components within a single belief, among two or more related beliefs, among all the beliefs

entering into an attitude organization, and among all the beliefs and attitudes entering into a total system of beliefs (p. 114).

Attitude and Behavior

The relationship of attitudes and behavior is not quite as clear or as closely linked. Attitude is considered the precondition for behavior (Allport, 1967). Yet, the proposition that behavior can be predicted from attitude finds little empirical support. Fishbein (1967) stated "that there is still little, if any, consistent evidence supporting the hypothesis that knowledge of an individual's attitude toward some object will allow one to predict the way he will behave with respect to the object (p. 477)."

This does not mean that attitudes do not have a "certain amount of predictability (Triandis, 1971, p. 5)."

Lawless (1972) summarizes his view of the controversy by concluding that "we know a person's attitude when bits of information from his past behavior enable us to predict his future behavior in certain situations (p. 166)."

One of the leading authorities in the field, Allport (1967) reviewed existing opinions on the relationship of attitude and behavior. He deduced,

the attitude is incipient and preparatory rather than overt and consummatory. It is not behavior, but the precondition of behavior. It may exist in all degrees of readiness from

the most latent, dormant traces of forgotten habits to the tension or motion which is actively determining a course of conduct that is under way (p. 8).

In summary, it is important to note that attitude, a cluster of beliefs, are interwoven into clusters to form an individual's personality. The direction and intensity of attitudes have been linked to a certain type of personality. The individual's type of personality is related to the attitudes about certain objects or issues.

Attitudes, associated with conflict management, may be linked to a certain type of personality. The attitudes and personality of the Army officer are learned from early childhood, but his present environment can not be ignored (Sherif and Sherif, 1967). An examination of that environment is considered an important aspect of this study.

THE ARMY OFFICER IN CONFLICT MANAGEMENT

Attitude and Personality Considerations

The leader is influenced by the organization or group affiliation in which he belongs (Johoda and Warren, 1966). Consequently, the patterns of an organization are reflected in the individual's beliefs (Likert and Bowers, 1972). The military officer, as a member of the military organization, is influenced by the associa-

tion with the organization, and it affects the individual attitude (Yarmolinsky, 1971). This is especially true among "careerists" (Janowitz, 1960).

The Army officer, then, is somewhere along a continuum from an authoritarian personality to a flexible or nonauthoritarian personality. This personality determines how the leader will evaluate and react to a conflict situation (Rider, 1973). "Conflict is usually triggered by hostility with an individual, group, the environment, or the personality of leaders (Saville, 1971, p. 46)."

Boulding (1962) researched the influence of the authoritarian type and the reconciling type in conflict management. He concluded, that the authoritarian is self-centered and imposing, an impediment to constructive reconciliation of conflict. Rider (1973), commenting on Boulding's research, noted that,

the authoritarian regards the existence of differing values as personal threats rather than an opportunity for growth. The reconciling personality type, by contrast, identifies personally, not with any particular set of values but with a learning process, a concern for the welfare of others (pp. 66-67).

The relationships of conflict-promoting factors in the individual, such as authoritarian, were examined by Nye (1973) as those factors interplay with a conflict situation.

Conflict-promoting factors affect each other; individual characteristics are capable of instigating and intensifying interaction patterns, and vice-versa. Conflict is produced from combinations of individual characteristics and inter-

action patterns. Conflict, once begun, tends to intensify, and add to, the very factors that produced it (p. 108).

It is important to note that conflict situations are inevitable, and that certain individual characteristics can either reduce or intensify the conflict. Kahn, et al. (1964) identified the flexible personality type as decidedly non-authoritarian. The flexible personality type is personally involved, dedicated to mutual understanding, and seeks "the opportunity to introduce significant change (p. 291)."

In contrast, the rigid type was depicted as a conformer to his superiors and a "yes" man. Rigid types . . . "want to be respected and appreciated by them and to do the right kind of things for them (p. 293)." Often rigids intensify conflict by short term approaches to problems without weighing the long term values. They would rather comply than evaluate. "Demands from above are generally unquestioned, but even when they feel critical of a superior's action, the criticism is unspoken (p. 293)."

Rider (1973) concluded that an "individual with an authoritarian type personality has great difficulty in the process of reconciliation because the identification of images is related to the person and any change is seen as a personal threat (p. 70)."

Based on several studies (Boulding, 1962; Kahn, et al., 1964; Nye, 1973; Rider, 1973), it may be concluded that the authoritarian personality reduces the chance that a response will resolve a conflict

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Based on several studies (Boulding, 1962; Kahn, et al., 1964; Nye, 1973; Rider, 1973), it may be concluded that the authoritarian personality reduces the chance that a response will resolve a conflict

situation and probably intensify the conflict. Additionally, rigid types utilize defensive mechanisms and when pressure from above is applied will most likely, in a conflict situation, conform to authority regardless of the long term consequences.

Managerial Styles

The Army officer is a product of his experiences before and after his entrance into the military organization. "Parents instill attitudes, values, prejudices, fears, and a variety of behavioral patterns and predispositions in their children (Mantell, 1974, p. 244)." The military organization, with its different missions and subgroups, encourage different attitudes. In this point, Janowitz (1960) concluded that the traditional authoritarian personality type will be found in the combat branches while the more flexible personality type will be located in the support branches.

Moskos (1974), in considering Janowitz's theory, stated that the trend is away from the authoritarian in the support branches, but remaining traditional in the combat arms branches (p. 29). Moskos explains that the professionals, such as doctors and technicians, have developed a more flexible managerial style similar to that found in the civilian sector. He further states that the combat arms branches will retain an authoritarian approach. Moskos (1974)

concluded,

a predirection toward noncivilian values will result from the self-recruitment of the junior membership as reinforced by the dominant conservatism of career officers and noncoms (p. 28).

If the combat arms branches are maintaining a strict traditional or authoritarian approach in their managerial style and in turn in the attitudes and personality of their officers, then several authors in the field of conflict management would consider this the least effective means of producing constructive outcomes in conflict situations. Boulding (1962), Kahn, et al. (1964), Likert and Bowers (1972), Nye (1973), Rider (1973) agree that authoritarian managerial style or personality is least effective in the constructive management of conflict.

Likert and Bowers (1972) listed the various characteristics of conflict management, based on the organizational system in which individuals found themselves. If the military officer is located in System 4, "the most socially mature and developed form of human interaction (p. 116)," then that system "provides the most highly developed and effective means of managing conflict (p. 116)." To maximize the system, a cooperative atmosphere must exist; interaction can be encouraged between members; and they adopt positive attitudes toward resolving conflict more constructively and successfully. The traits of a flexible or nonauthoritarian personality coincide with the patterns of the system. If a difference existed within the sub-systems of the Army structure, then the combat service

branches would view conflict more constructively than the combat arms branches. The authoritarian or rigid type coincide with the least effective system (System 1) of conflict management (Likert and Bowers, 1972).

Likert and Bowers (1972) disagree that the sub-systems of an organization view conflict differently. In applying their theory to the Army structure, the branch groups of the Army would view conflict consistently.

The measurement of the attitude relative to conflict management will reflect the Army's view, as seen through the middle level officers, of conflict management. The degree of consistency in attitudes will reflect the organizational view of conflict management. This measurement also needs to determine differences, if they exist within the Army structure.

ATTITUDE MEASUREMENT

Reliability and Validity

The literature lists several types of scales used to measure attitudes. Before discussing the types of attitude measurements, the terms reliability and validity should be clarified.

"The reliability of an instrument is usually said to be the degree to which the same scores can be reproduced when the same objects are measured repeatedly (Osgood, et al., 1957, p. 120)."

Validity is concerned with measuring what the instrument was designed to measure. Validity is usually described in three common types: content, construct, and criterion-related validity.

Content Validity The degree to which the sample content of the instrument represents the subject being measured. Wiles (1972) noted that "content is concerned with how representative the topic, the indicators, and the substance are that are used to measure an idea (p. 79)."

Construct Validity "If the instrument has a high degree of construct validity, its findings will vary from one situation to another, as the theory underlying the construct would predict (Ashman and Glock, 1971, p. 270)."

Criterion-related Validity Criterion-related validity is divided into two parts: predictive and concurrent validity. Predictive is the degree to which a future event is predicted. The concurrent validity is the degree to which an instrument "estimates present status with respect to a characteristic difference in the test (Ashman and Glock, p. 268)."

Ashman and Glock explained the difference between reliability and validity. They stated,

the validity of a measuring instrument is the degree to which it actually serves the purposes for which its use is intended; the reliability of an instrument, is its capacity to yield consistent information regardless of whether it serves the purpose in question (p. 290).

Techniques of Attitude Measurement

The techniques for measuring attitudes vary considerably. Diab (1967) concluded that the degree of success depended on two major assumptions:

1. That the attitude measure being used is valid;
2. That the attitude being measured relates to a highly ego-involving issue and, therefore, may be a major causative factor for the behavior in question (p. 140).

The second assumption is met by the relationship of the issue (conflict management) to the self. The self must make evaluations about a subject that permeates his entire life, family, and group affiliations. That subject is conflict.

The first assumption was briefly discussed in Chapter One. Rider (1973) developed his instrument to measure attitudes relative to concepts of conflict management. By varying techniques, fully accepted in the literature, the Rider Instrument was designed within the constraints of validity: (1) content validity, (2) construct validity, (3) criterion-related validity. The Rider Instrument is assumed to be reliable and valid for a military sample. Rider considered his attitude instrument applicable to all managerial organizations.

The three types of measurement most commonly used in attitude evaluation are: (1) "conventional attitude scales such as those developed by Thurstone, Likert, and Guttman; (2) social judgment-involvement approach developed by Sherif and others; (3) semantic

differential procedure devised by Osgood and others (Diab, 1967, p. 140)."

Conventional Attitude Scales Diab (1967) listed two common characteristics of the attitude scales:

1. They all represent the individuals attitude toward an object by a single preference score or average "most acceptable" position on a continuum of positions ranging from highly favorable to highly unfavorable.
2. In every case the individual is fully aware that his attitude on the issue in question is being measured (p. 141).

Several authors criticize this instrument because a single score is considered an unrealistic view of attitudes (Diab, 1967).

Social Judgment-Involvement Approach The subjects select an attitude "through latitudes of acceptance, rejection, and non-commitment (p. 142)." Selectivity is based on the most acceptable or objectionable response to an attitude object, rather than a single score.

Semantic Differential "This instrument allows the researcher to present any attitude object, be it person, issue, institution, practice, picture, musical composition, or anything else. A series of scales reacts to the attitude object on this set of standard scales (Triandis, 1971, p. 47)." Osgood, Suci, and Tannenbaum (1957) suggest three major independent dimensions are involved in the assessment of an attitude object. They are an evaluative factor, a potency factor, and an activity factor. Evaluative factor is represented by such polar adjectives as good - bad,

large - small, pleasant - unpleasant, and positive - negative.

Potency factor is represented by such polar adjectives as heavy - light, strong - weak, hard - soft, and rugged - delicate. Activity factor is represented by such polar adjectives as active - passive, fast - slow, hot - cold, and excitable - calm (pp. 36-38).

The magnitude of importance, in order, is evaluative, potency, and then activity. Osgood, et al. (1957) using a variety of concepts, concluded that the evaluative factor accounts for approximately half to three-quarters of the extractable variance (p. 72).

The differentiation of factor weight and concepts was explained in relative importance. Osgood, et al., concluded,

. . . the differentiation among concepts in terms of their evaluation is about twice as fine as differentiation in terms of their potency or activity, which in turn are about twice as fine as differentiations on the basis of subsequent factors (p. 73).

Attitude Evaluation

An attitude is a predisposition (Allport, 1967) that has meaning and degrees of meaning. Osgood, et al. (1957) determined that meaning has two properties in semantic space: "direction from the origin, and distance from the origin (p. 26)." In judging attitude, it is important to consider not only the positive or negative aspects of the response, but the intensity of that response.

Osgood, et al., has shown,

direction of a point in the semantic space will then correspond to what reactions are elicited by the sign, and distance from the origin will correspond to the intensity of the reactions (p. 27).

The reactions on the scales, relative to a concept, are plotted graphically. The Rider Instrument utilizes seven selection points, as recommended by Osgood, et al. (1957). The score may reflect a total for each concept or single score. Fishbein (1967) stated that "there is considerable evidence showing that this single "affective" score is highly related to an individual's beliefs about the object (p. 479)." An analysis or scoring may be performed on each concept or reaction to measure clusters of responses in a formation of "characteristic attributes" (Osgood, et al., 1957, pp. 116-119). Clusters of attitude responses may be grouped to demonstrate similarity of response, either by group or individual characteristics. Attitude clusters are examined for their consistency in characteristic attributes.

Fishbein (1967) discussed the consistency of an attitude in determining a meaning for positive evaluation. Fishbein noted,

... if an object is associated with other objects that are positively evaluated, it is "consistent" to have a positive attitude toward it. Similarly, if the object is associated with other objects that are negatively evaluated, it is "consistent" to a negative attitude toward it. If the object is associated with some objects that are positively evaluated and some are negatively evaluated, a relatively neutral attitude would be consistent (p. 398).

In summary, Osgood, et al. (1957) have demonstrated the reliability of the semantic differential in numerous studies (p. 192). The validity of the semantic differential is determined if the evaluation factor is an index of an attitude. Significant correlations were noted with the Thurstone scales. The conclusions were that the semantic differential consistently demonstrated reliability and validity (pp. 192-193). Osgood's semantic differential has been used in a variety of subjects and professions. It is assumed that the Rider Instrument and Osgood's semantic differential are reliable and valid for a military sample.

Summary

Perhaps, the most difficult trait to accept concerning conflict is its universal relationship to the individual and the group. Stagner (1967) summarized the catholicity and value of conflict.

Conflict is not necessarily either good or bad. Conflict is a fact of human existence; without it we would not be human; we would not exist. But conflict need not be violent or catastrophic. It can be regulated and domesticated (p. 163).

It was determined from the review that the importance of managing conflict is apparent. Rider (1973) concluded that the wise leader "must not only be aware of the possible strategies, but must also be selective in choosing the strategies to use in a conflict situation (p. 91)." A positive view of conflict and conflict management is an important step in developing functional outcomes to

conflict situations.

Likert and Bowers (1972) explored the link between the individual and the organization to develop the optimum system of managing conflict (pp. 114-115). System 4 or the most socially mature in human interaction affords an individual the opportunity to be open, communicative, creative, and dedicated. This type individual emulates the flexible or nonauthoritarian type that several authors consider the most effective type to manage conflict. At System 1, the motivational forces rely on punitive treatment of members of the organization (Likert and Bowers, 1972, p. 112). Similarly, the authoritarian or rigid type is most compatible with the organizational System 1 for managing conflict. The system and its individuals are guarded, deceiving, suppressive, self-oriented, and barriers to feedback. This result in a system in which conflict is intensified.

The review of the literature confirmed the importance of the organizational structure and the individual make-up in managing conflict. Likert and Bowers (1970), after extensive research, developed a relationship between conflict management and the process of leadership, communication, motivation, control, decision-making, etc (p. 20). These authorities concluded,

one of the essential functions of the interaction-influence network of an organization is coping with conflict wherever it may occur either within the organization or between it and

others. The manner in which an organization copes with conflict is consistent with the operating characteristics of its interaction-influence network and the management system upon which its interaction-influence network is based (pp. 20-26).

From a review of the literature, the "characteristics of the interaction-influence network" of the military organization was not determined to be uniformly documented. Some authorities noted that the network was authoritarian related in the combat-related branches and becoming more civilianized in the technical branches. It was further noted in the literature that the combat service support branches were considered by Janowitz (1960), Yarmolinsky (1971), and Moskos (1974) as more flexible in managerial philosophy than the more traditional combat arms branches. Technology and social change were considered the most likely reasons. Likert and Bowers (1972) would state that the branch groups are consistent in their "interaction-influence networks."

The individual make-up, his attitude and personality, are extremely important in the ability to manage conflict. In addition, the leader must be aware of this and strive for a constructive approach to conflict.

Numerous authors agreed that the only long term effective strategy of conflict management is the creative thinking process or the problem-solving approach. Leaders may be distracted due to the difficulties of the conflict. Effective leaders must learn how to

manage through the difficulties surrounding conflict and resolve the issues. McGregor (1967) emphasized that three underlying conditions must first exist,

1. Authentic communications must be established.
2. Attitudes of mutual trust and support must be present.
3. There must be a genuine respect for individual differences (p. 193).

A review of the relationship of beliefs, attitude, and personality revealed a close linkage. An attitude is a cluster of beliefs that fit within the total personality. It was noted that behavior has some predictability from attitude measurement, but that an attitude is a predisposition to act and subject to change. Clusters of an attitude, in the evaluative level, give weight to the meaning of an attitude.

It was deemed necessary in the review to examine the types of attitude instruments, their reliability and validity, and their methods of scoring. The Rider Instrument was developed on a semantic differential and its reliability and validity assessment closely followed the methods recommended by Osgood, et al. (1957). The review reinforced Rider's (1973) view "that the evaluative factor of the semantic differential can be an index of attitude (p. 97)."

The concepts of conflict management determined by Rider in the construction of the instrument are highly relevant to the subject

being measured. This was noted by the consistency of the concepts in the review of the literature on conflict management. The Rider Instrument will satisfactorily measure the attitude of military officers relative to the concepts of conflict management. Additionally, the Rider Instrument has positive and negative concepts thus allowing the sample to be clustered according to its characteristics relative to the direction and intensity of the responses.

In summary, the United States Army, as a large organization, has an interaction-influence network that manages conflict situations. The closer the network is to System 4, the more effective the Army will be in the constructive management of conflict. The Army needs officers with a flexible managerial style that view conflict management positively. This positive view should be consistent throughout the Army and not restricted due to the traditional views of the Army. Conflict management can produce beneficial results for the Army and the individual, and the system needed to optimize the benefits is the responsibility of leaders at every level of the Army.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

Overview

In this study, exploratory and inferential procedures will be used to measure the attitudes of middle career Army officers relative to the concepts of conflict management. Data will be gathered through the administration of the Rider Instrument and a revised version of the Rider Instrument. An accompanying information sheet will collect data concerning the background characteristics of the Army officer.

The data derived from a pre-sample will be analyzed to reduce the responses necessary in the Rider Instrument. The data will be reduced by a clustering procedure. The revised version will be administered to the pre-sample group and a larger sample of the Army officers attending the Command and General Staff College.

A statistical analysis will test the hypotheses designed in the study. A clustering procedure will be applied to identify clusters of similarities and differences among middle level career Army officers.

Interpretation of the data will rely on the empirical results of the statistical test, clustering procedure, and the review of the related literature.

Rider Instrument

The Rider Instrument, Appendix A, was designed to measure attitudes relative to the concepts of conflict management. Noah H. Rider (1973) developed the concepts from a review of the literature on conflict management. Twenty-five concepts were selected by a group of national experts in the field of conflict management. The concepts are scored on Osgood's semantic differential, an attitude measurement scale. The resulting scores may be added to form a single index score or similar concepts (positive or negative) may be analyzed seperately.

The Rider Instrument was tested and finalized using a sample of school administrators. Rider (1973) concluded that the instrument was applicable to managers in any large organization. A limitation of the Rider Instrument is that the instrument has not been widely tested in various organizations. It is an underlying assumption in this study that the attitudes of Army officers relative to conflict management will be accurately measured by the Rider Instrument.

The Rider Instrument was chosen for two reasons. First, the purpose of the study coincides with the measuring capability of the Rider Instrument, with the acceptable before-mentioned limitations. Second, the attitude measurement scale considered most appropriate was the semantic differential. Osgood's semantic differential, incorporated into the Rider Instrument, has numerical values for

each response. The data from the instrument and information sheet may be arranged in an ordinal and nominal scale. The hypotheses designed in the study will be accepted or rejected by statistical inference. A statistical procedure will discover the similarities and differences of the measurement value and background information.

An encumbrance of the Rider Instrument is its limitation to small samples. The answers are hand recorded and hand graded. The test requires approximately thirty minutes to complete. Interpretation of the data requires additional processing time if a computer program is used. The time limitation (thirty minutes to complete) was considered critical to obtain a high level of response in a large sample. It was decided that the Rider Instrument needed revision prior to being administered to a large sample. The basic format and instructions would be maintained.

Development of the Revised Rider Instrument

The results of the pre-sample test were hand scored and key-punched onto data processing cards. Each response was separately keypunched to give each individual 300 items of data from the Rider Instrument (25 concepts x 12 polar adjectives for each concept) and 14 items of background data. The data was filed in the Command and General Staff College computer system.

A tape of the Hierarchical Clustering Schemes (Johnson, 1967),

programmed by William B. Allard, was acquired from Michigan State University. The individual measurements from the pre-sample were used as input.

Hierarchical Clustering Schemes accept large arrays of data, and arrange the data into homogeneous groups (Johnson, 1967). The polar adjectives and concepts of the Rider Instrument measure attitudes which have inherent similarities. The data collected from the pre-sample has a structure, but difficult to discover from visual inspection. Hierarchical Clustering will discover the structural similarities inherent in the data.

A second problem is the large amount of data collected on each individual in the pre-sample. Johnson (1967) concluded,

the problem of course, is that if the number of objects is large, the resulting array of similarity measures can be so enormous that the underlying pattern of structure is not evident from inspection alone (p. 242).

Hierarchical Clustering is an empirical procedure, which will not only reduce the concepts and polar adjectives needed to measure attitude, but will demonstrate the differences and similarities of those attitudes. The resulting picture generated is a tree which merges the most similar polar adjectives first and the least similar last (The tape produces a tree opposite to the design described by Johnson, 1967, p. 243). An additional tree is also produced which merges the most similar concepts first and the least similar last. What occurs is the clustering of all objects similar to each other

according to the strength of that similarity. A "value" or "rating" is given to the cluster (Johnson, 1967). The cluster is those polar adjectives or concepts that gather similar responses. In other words, several polar adjectives and concepts collect data for the same attitude response. The resulting instrument, Appendix B, combined concepts and polar adjectives that clustered homogeneously and maintained concepts and polar adjectives that clustered dissimilarly.

The larger test sample recorded their responses to the Revised Rider Instrument, Appendix B, in the same manner as the Rider Instrument. The score sheets were keypunched onto data processing cards. The cards, containing a response for each polar adjective and background question, were filed in the Command and General Staff College computer system.

The data was analyzed by the Hierarchical Clustering Scheme which determined the attitude similarities and differences of the sample relative to the concepts of conflict management. The resulting tree pictured the relationships between the attitude measurements and the demographics of the sample. Additionally, the tree pictured the view of the sample relative to the positive and negative concepts of conflict management. Specific application will be addressed later in this chapter with regard to attitude determination.

Demographics

The basic design of the demographics questionnaire, Appendix C, was derived from the HumRRO studies authored by T. O. Jacobs (1970). It was also noted in the review of the literature that background and environment affect a person's attitude (Sherif and Sherif, 1967). Some of the more apparent affects were: education (Sherif and Sherif, 1967), family background and wealth (Jahoda and Warren, 1966), group affiliations (Sherif and Sherif, 1967), and present family (Sherif and Sherif, 1967). All middle career Army officers in the sample were requested to complete the information sheet which accompanied the attitude instrument.

Selection of Sample

All the United States Army officers attending the Command and General Staff College were randomly placed in each section to produce an even spread of branch groups, ages, educational levels, and ranks. Each section is considered by the school to be a random representation of the total student population. An assumption is made that one section designated to be a pre-sample represents a random sample of the total student population.

The specific section selected as the pre-sample was based on administrative considerations and accessibility. Thirty Army officers, ten from each branch group, were designated as the pre-sample. The ten officers, in each of the combat support group and

the combat service support group, were the total number in the section. The ten combat arms group officers were picked according to the procedures and random numbers table as outlined by Good and Scates (1954).

The larger test sample was a random selection of three of the twenty sections within the student body. Each section contains a random placement of fifty United States Army officers. The Revised Rider Instrument was distributed to all 150 officers and administered to the pre-sample group. The second testing of the pre-sample group will provide data on the degree of reliability of the Revised Rider Instrument.

The officers in each sample contain three groups according to branch affiliation. The Army distinguishes between each branch group according to its mission.

(1) Combat Arms Branches are those directly involved in the conduct of actual fighting. These are: Infantry, Air Defense Artillery, Field Artillery, Armor, and the Corps of Engineers.

(2) Combat Support Arms are those which provide operational assistance to the combat arms, including engagement in combat when necessary, but who have additional responsibilities in providing logistical and administrative support to the Army as a whole. These include: Signal Corps, Military Police Corps, and Military Intelligence.

(3) Combat Service Support are those remaining branches whose chief mission is to provide logistical and administrative support, and whose personnel are not usually directly engaged in combat operations (Crocker, 1973, p. 480-482).

Limitations

The Rider Instrument has not previously been tested with a group of military officers. The basic format (semantic differential) has been studied and found acceptable in a variety of organizational settings. The Rider Instrument and the Revised Rider Instrument are considered sufficiently reliable and valid for this study.

Test Administration

Two problem areas were considered prior to the administration of the Rider Instrument and the Revised Rider Instrument. A definition of conflict and the level of conflict was included with each test letter of instruction. This reduced the confusion associated with the term conflict.

Second, the problem of obtaining a high percentage of test returns was considered. The tests were personally delivered to each member of the pre-sample. All officers in the pre-sample completed the instruments. The instruments for the large test sample were given to the section leaders to distribute.

Hypotheses

The hypotheses for this research evolved from a deductive process of four stages. The stages transformed a general theory about attitudes of conflict management into a testable statement.

Hypothesis One

Stage One: Theory

A positive attitude of conflict management is more apt to produce a constructive outcome of a conflict situation. The Army is changing in its managerial style resulting in a more constructive view of conflict management. The change affects the attitudes of Army officers relative to conflict management.

Stage Two: Conceptual

The change in managerial style will produce more officers who will express attitudes of conflict management in a positive manner than officers who express attitudes of conflict management in a negative manner.

Stage Three: Operational

Middle level career officer attitudes of conflict management will be significantly more positive than negative.

Stage Four: Statistical

The proportion of middle level career officers that express positive attitudes of conflict management will be equal to those that express negative attitudes.

$$H_0: P [M (X_i) > M_0] = P [M (X_i) < M_0] = .5$$

$$H_1: P [M (X_i) > M_0] > .5$$

Level of Significance = 0.05

Reject H_0 if $M (X_i) > M_0$

It is hypothesized, H_0 , that the median M of the middle level career Army officers (X_i) equals the value M_0 . The hypothesis is designed as $M (X_i) - M_0$ is positive and $M (X_i) - M_0$ is negative and each X_i has the probability $P (r)$ of $\frac{1}{2}$. M_0 is determined by multiplying the neutral score of 4 on Osgood's semantic differential times the number of polar adjective pairs and the number of concepts.

The probability $P (r)$ that n observations from the Revised Rider Instrument will score positively is a one-tailed test. The critical region of the one-tailed test can be determined by cumulative probability of n observations (Blalock, 1960; Bradley, 1968).

$$\text{Cum } p (r) = \sum_{i=0}^r \binom{n}{i} .5^n$$

The probability for r positive scores, out of n observations, is contingent upon certain assumptions. They are:

- (1) The scores must be capable of being dichotomized (positive and negative).
- (2) The scores must be independent observations (each test is an observation).
- (3) The sample constitutes a random sample (addressed in a previous paragraph).

The level of significance is 0.05. Since H_1 predicts the direction of the dichotomy, the one-tailed region (x = number of negative scores) is the probability of x occurrence under H_0 is equal to or less than 0.05.

A one-tailed binomial test is considered a powerful statistical test (Siegel, 1954; Blalock, 1960; Bradley, 1968), and is highly applicable where either a positive or negative score is assigned to each individual in the sample.

Hypothesis Two

Stage One: Theory

The Army is changing to a more flexible style of management. A positive attitude of conflict management is more consistent with a flexible managerial style than with an authoritarian managerial style. Several authors (Yarmolinsky, 1971; Hauser, 1973; Moskos, 1974) emphasize that the branch groups of the Army are changing in their managerial style. They note that this change is less evident in the Combat Arms branches than in the more technically oriented branches, and most evident in the Combat Service Support branches.

Stage Two: Conceptual

The changes in branch group managerial style will produce officers in the technical branches that express attitudes of conflict management in a more positive manner than the Combat Arms officers

who express attitudes of conflict management. The Combat Service Support branches will have officers expressing a more positive view of conflict management than the other branch groups.

Stage Three: Operational

The Combat Service Support branch officers' attitudes of conflict management will be more positive than the Combat Support branch officers' attitudes of conflict management, which in turn, will be more positive than the attitudes of conflict management expressed by Combat Arms branch officers.

Stage Four: Statistical

The attitudes of conflict management expressed by the Combat Service Support branch officers and the Combat Support branch officers will be equally positive in comparison to the attitudes of conflict management expressed by the Combat Arms branch officers.

$$H_0: CSS = CS = CA$$

$$H_1: \text{At least one mean is different.}$$

$$\text{Level of significance} = 0.05$$

A one-way analysis of variance test was chosen to determine if the difference among the means of the sample was different because of branch affiliation or simply due to random variation. The size of MS_B , the mean square based on differences between branch group means, can be evaluated by comparing it with MS_W , the mean square within the branch groups (columns). The expected results of MS_W is

always equal to error variance σ_e^2 (McCollough, 1974). If $MS_B = MS_W$, then we accept that H_0 is true. If MS_B is sufficiently large with respect to MS_W , we shall be able to reject H_0 , and state that the differences exist between branch groups (McCollough, 1974).

As $H_0 : MS_B = MS_W$ has been stated, the F distribution will equal 1 when H_0 is true ($H_0 : F = 1$). If MS_B / MS_W has an F value greater than the F critical value, then H_0 is rejected. The F test will be one-tailed because we expect the F statistic MS_B / MS_W to be at least 1 (McCollough, 1974).

A one-way analysis of variance has certain requirements which must be met (McCollough, 1974).

(1) That the raw scores within each branch group be normally distributed. The sample is large enough to dismiss this requirement. This requirement is critical only when the branch group is less than 30.

(2) That the branch groups all have the same variance. This requirement is not critical as long as the branch groups have nearly equal standard deviations. An F test may be used to determine if $\sigma_1 = \sigma_2 = \sigma_3$, but equal standard deviations amount to postulating that the variance is the same.

(3) That all the N observations in all the branch groups be independent of each other. Each score is an independent observation, which contributes a score to only one branch group. This is the

most critical requirement of a one-way analysis of variance test.

A one-way analysis of variance test will be conducted on each concept in the Revised Rider Instrument for the differences, if any, in the branch group attitudes relative to conflict management. Each concept is considered a unique observation. The polar adjectives will be summed to acquire a concept score. Several polar adjectives are rated according to each concept, therefore, the value of the polar adjectives varies with each individuals interpretation of a concept. The concept is viewed as the attitude measurement. The resulting conclusions will be addressed according to each concept.

Attitude Determination

The attitudes of Army officers relative to conflict management are influenced and formed in association with numerous independent variables. The demographics questionnaire, Appendix C, collected data on fourteen independent variables. It was noted in the review of the literature that the middle level career Army officer attitudes are affected by group affiliation, education, background, personality, and family life.

The problem is how to determine those variables (officer demographic data) which affect the attitudes relative to the concepts of conflict management. The feasibility of isolating each variable, to calculate its relationship to the sample, is doubtful

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using a separate hypothesis for each variable. The relationships can be discovered by the Hierarchical Clustering Scheme (Johnson, 1967).

The Hierarchical Clustering Scheme will print a tree plotting the homogeneous variables and the dissimilar variables, based on each concept of conflict management. Predictions about the clustering are unnecessary. The purpose is to discover the structure of the variables. The procedure will empirically picture and define the variables as they affect the attitudes of middle level career Army officers relative to conflict management.

The Hierarchical Clustering Scheme generates a value distance between objects (in this case variables) that form a cluster. A cluster is a joining of different variables according to their similarity. The resulting tree is a hierarchy of clusters.

If we assign a value to all variables, such as rank and age, we may correlate by rank order (other possible correlations exist) all the variables, and obtain a correlation matrix. The matrix has an absolute value of Spearman's correlation coefficient $RHO(I, J)$. The variables of the n observations are correlated with each concept, each group of positive and negative concepts, and the total sum of concepts.

In each matrix, the observations are then paired by their similarity. The outcome is a cluster of observations according to their attitudes of conflict management. Within each group,

certain variables may also show similarity. It is these similarities or dissimilarities that are significant. The end product is an exploratory empirical analysis of the attitudes of conflict management without the lengthy process of testing an hypothesis for each variable.

The concept-by-concept results of the inference test on the two hypotheses may or may not agree with the clusters generated on each concept. Additionally, the Hierarchical Clustering Scheme will depict more information in one test than the statistical inference test. The clusters will demonstrate intensity as well as direction according to the distance between sample scores. The tried and true statistical test of one-way analysis of variance may or may not show differences in the attitudes of the branch groups, and the clusterings may or may not picture branch group affiliation as a discriminating variable. This comparison of statistical methods will be an interesting side feature in the study.

Reliability

One way to develop a high degree of reliability in a measuring instrument is by parallelism. The test procedures, the type measuring instrument, and the subjects were paralleled in both tests involving the pre-sample. Thorndike (1971) concluded that "repetition of the test appears to provide an acceptable procedure for reliability determination (p. 406)."

A test for reliability will additionally be conducted to weight the reliability assessment of the Rider Instrument and the Revised Rider Instrument. The scores of the pre-sample, using both the Rider Instrument and the Revised Rider Instrument, will be examined. The method of reliability to be assessed is the test-retest (Thorndike, 1971).

The test will determine whether the scores of each concept of conflict management were significant in degree of association. A parametric test is desired that ranks ordinal scale data, requires normality in assumptions about population distribution, and accepts small samples. The intraclass Correlation Coefficient: r_{kk} was selected. The formula is:

$$r_{kk} = \frac{V_r - V_e}{V_e} \quad (\text{Guilford, 1965, p. 300})$$

Where V_r = Variance between rows

V_e = Variance for residuals (or error)

What does a reliability coefficient say? "It indicates the percentage of the variance of obtained scores on the test, r_{kk} percent, that is due to true-score variation; hence only $100 - r_{kk}$ percent of the variance of obtained scores is due to errors of measurement (Thorndike, 1971, p. 374)." An r_{kk} of .75 is considered

CHAPTER IV

FINDINGS, ANALYSIS, AND EVALUATION

Introduction

The Rider Instrument was administered to a sample of 30 middle level career officers attending the United States Army Command and General Staff College at Fort Leavenworth, Kansas. The responses were analyzed using Hierarchical Clustering Schemes (Johnson, 1967). The Hierarchical Clustering Schemes reduced the number of concepts and polar adjectives in the Rider Instrument. These results led to the design of the Revised Rider Instrument.

The Revised Rider Instrument was administered to three randomly selected sections of student officers. The same student officers used in the pre-test were also tested. The responses from 123 officers were analyzed to accept or reject the null or statistical hypotheses stated in Chapter III. The responses were also analyzed by Hierarchical Clustering Schemes for the purpose of discovering the structure relationship between attitudes of conflict management and numerous independent variables.

In this chapter, the data and statistical procedures will be addressed in the same sequence as in Chapter III.

Revised Rider Instrument

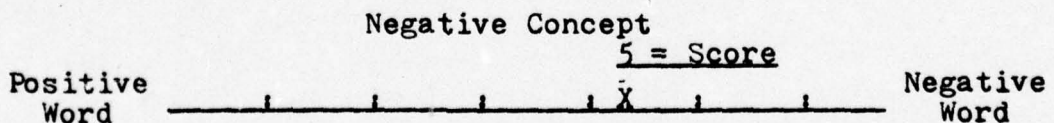
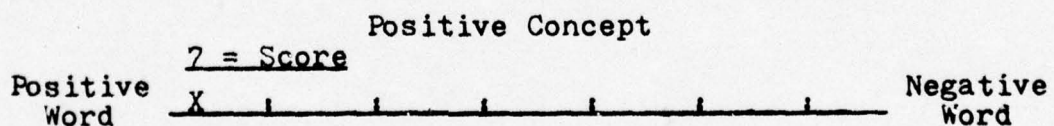
Each of the polar adjectives and the concepts were examined using a statistical procedure called Hierarchical Clustering Schemes (HCS) (Johnson, 1967). The polar adjectives were addressed first,

and then the concepts.

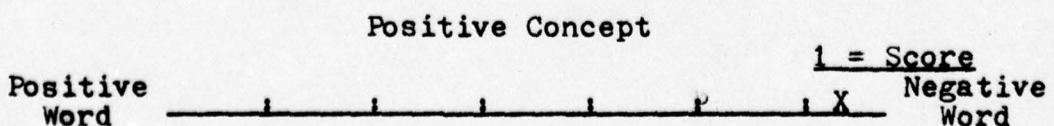
Polar Adjective Pairs

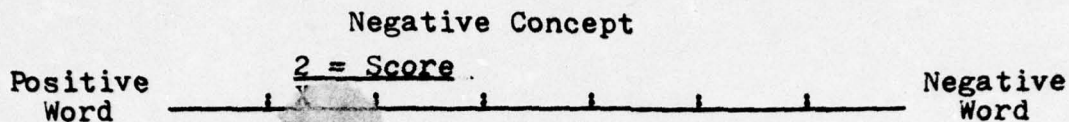
The polar adjectives selected by Rider (1973) give a degree of meaning to each concept. Some of the polar adjectives, as noted in Chapter III, have more meaning than others (Osgood, et al., 1957). The HCS analyzed the relationship of each pair of polar adjectives, concept by concept. The results indicated empirically those polar adjectives that have similar meaning, dissimilar meaning, and little or diverse meaning.

The response to each polar adjective was scored one through seven. The value of the score depended on the direction and intensity of the response. A positive response to a positive concept or a negative response to a negative concept received a score of five through seven.

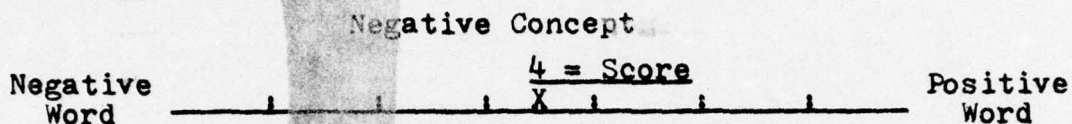


A negative response to a positive concept or a positive response to a negative response received a score of one through three.





A neutral response received a score of four.



The resulting score on each polar adjective was analyzed by HCS in correlation with each concept. The output produced two trees for each of the twenty-five concepts. The trees clustered each concept by similarity and dissimilarity. Tables 4-A and 4-B are examples of the data output.

Each tree was examined to determine those polar adjectives that clustered similar, dissimilar, or showed little clustering relationship. The results were placed into a matrix for the odd number (Table 4-C) and even number concepts (Table 4-D). The polar adjectives were numbered one through twelve in sequence as they appeared under the odd number concepts and the even number concepts. (Although the pairs are the same for each concept, the sequence is mixed.)

The pairs that grouped consistently over the twenty five concepts were noted by the matrix. Those groups of numbers corresponded to nine word groups. These groups are:

Group one: *harmonious - dissonant
disreputable - reputable
sharp - dull

Group two: *positive - negative
good - bad
progressive - regressive
weak - strong

Group three: *worthless - valuable
 unsuccessful - successful
 dull - sharp

Group four: *true - false
 meaningful - meaningless

Group five: *positive - negative
 bad - good
 weak - strong

Group six: *progressive - regressive
 meaningful - meaningless
 wise - foolish

Group seven: *worthless - valuable
 unsuccessful - successful

Group eight: *dissonant - harmonious
 sharp - dull

Group nine: *true - false
 disreputable - reputable

The polar adjective pairs that were selected (noted by asterisk) clustered more frequently than the other pairs. Basically, one pair of polar adjectives gives the same meaning as the other pairs in the same group. The selected pairs had more consistency over the twenty-five concepts, and clustered in more than one group. The five pairs selected for use in the Revised Rider Instrument were:

1. false - true
2. worthless - valuable
3. harmonious - dissonant
4. progressive - regressive
5. positive - negative

TABLE 4-A
Hierarchical Clustering Scheme
Clusters of Similarity
Twelve Polar Adjective Pairs
N = 30

TABLE 4-A
Hierarchical Clustering Scheme
Clusters of Similarity
Twelve Polar Adjective Pairs
N = 30

10, 11 Very High Value

9, 10, 11

8, 9, 10, 11 High Value

2, 3

4, 5, 6, 7 mid Value

8, 9, 10, 11, 12

4, 5, 6, 7, 11 Low Value

01 low Value - discriminative - fails to cluster

06 low Value - discriminative - fails to cluster

CONCENT 3

Very Night Cluster

TABLE 4-2
Hierarchical Clustering Scheme
Clusters of Dissimilarity
Twelve Polar Adjective Pairs
N = 30

8.9.10.11 high cluster - similar meaning

2,3 Mid Cluster - close meaning
5,4,7 Low Cluster - little meaning value to sample

Q. Nos. cluster

6.1. N₁ meaning - discriminates from other word pairs

TABLE 4-C
Matrix of Odd Concepts
Using Twelve Polar Adjective Pairs

SIMILAR CLUSTERS

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
1		6	5	0	3	1	4	4	3	4	5	0
2	6		7	4	5	0	4	4	0	2	2	1
3	6	7		7	8	0	4	7	4	3	4	1
4	0	5	7		7	2	2	4	4	2	2	1
5	3	5	8	7		0	5	6	6	4	4	0
6	0	1	0	2	1		2	2	2	1	1	6
7	4	4	4	2	5	2		3	3	5	6	1
8	5	4	2	5	6	2	3		7	7	6	4
9	3	0	4	4	5	2	2	7		6	7	3
10	4	2	3	2	4	1	6	7	7		11	4
11	5	2	4	2	4	1	6	6	8	11		3
12	1	1	1	2	0	6	1	4	1	3	2	

ROWS AND COLUMNS

1. false - true
2. meaningful - meaningless
3. worthless - valuable
4. dull - sharp
5. unsuccessful - successful
6. harmonious - dissonant
7. strong - weak
8. foolish - wise
9. good - bad
10. progressive - regressive
11. positive - negative
12. disreputable - reputable

NUMBER OF
DISSIMILAR CLUSTERS

7
1
0
3
0
6
2
1
0
0
0
4

Matrix indicates number of times the polar adjective pairs clustered similar over the thirteen odd concepts.

TABLE 4-D
Matrix of Even Concepts
Using Twelve Polar Adjective Pairs

SIMILAR CLUSTERS

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
1		5	6	5	3	5	5	2	4	1	1	3
2	5		8	4	1	4	1	2	5	1	2	3
3	5	8		4	3	3	2	2	4	1	0	3
4	4	3	3		3	3	1	1	3	0	3	1
5	3	1	3	3		1	3	4	2	3	2	1
6	5	4	3	3	1		8	4	3	1	1	3
7	5	1	2	1	3	8		5	4	2	1	2
8	2	2	2	1	4	4	5		4	3	1	0
9	4	5	4	4	2	3	4	4		2	1	1
10	1	1	1	0	3	1	2	3	2		1	0
11	1	2	0	3	2	1	1	1	1	1		0
12	3	3	3	1	1	3	2	0	1	0	0	

ROWS AND COLUMNS

1. progressive - regressive
2. meaningful - meaningless
3. wise - foolish
4. unsuccessful - successful
5. disreputable - reputable
6. positive - negative
7. bad - good
8. weak - strong
9. worthless - valuable
10. dissonant - harmonious
11. sharp - dull
12. true - false

NUMBER OF
DISSIMILAR CLUSTERS

0
2
0
1
1
0
0
3
0
6
6
6

Matrix indicates number of times the polar adjectives pairs clustered similar over the twelve even concepts.

The two polar adjectives pairs that showed little cluster consistency over the twenty-five concepts were strong - weak and dull - sharp. Osgood, et al. (1957) described the pairs as potency level and activity level of meaning, respectively. HCS noted empirically that these pairs have less meaning value because of their scattered relationship under each concept. Osgood, et al. (1957) concluded that evaluative word pairs have twice the meaning of potency and activity word pairs.

Concepts

The concepts were selected from HCS using the twelve polar adjectives and the five selected adjectives. Two trees were produced for each set of polar adjectives. The set of the five selected polar adjectives, (Table 4-G and Table 4-H) to be used in the Revised Rider Instrument, proved to be a duplication, with very slight variation, of the results obtained using twelve polar adjectives. This further demonstrated the meaning power of the five selected polar adjective pairs, and cross checked the results using twelve polar adjective pairs.

The concepts either clustered similar, dissimilar, or showed little relationship to the other concepts. The two trees (Table 4-E and Table 4-F) pictured the cluster relationships.

TABLE 1. Mean scores per concept

13, 22

P.P. 7, 24

TABLE 4-E
Hierarchical Clustering Schema
Clusters of Similarity
Twenty-five Concepts
N = 30

P = Positive Concepts
N = Negative Concepts

97

Cluster Value

2010

Y ADULTING 12 POLAP ADJ SCORES PER CONCEPT

AP ADJ SCORES PER CONCEPT

AP ADJ SCU
Nagata

cluster 12,35 cluster - 24,7 - 20,1

8, 71

also 04,

05 15

05,15

2,2,2

Only 124

SECRET

low,

outside cluster 9, 6, 17

21.

14.8

17 12

10,21 P

TABLE 4-P
Hierarchical Clustering Scheme
Clusters of Dissimilarity
Twenty-five Concepts
N = 30

P = Positive Concepts
N = Negative Concepts

100
17
17

(100)
17
17

The groupings of the concepts are:

SIMILAR CLUSTERS

Negative Concepts

Group 1. 18, 19
Group 2. 03, 11
Group 3. 13, 22, 23
Group 4. 12, 25

Positive Concepts

Group 5. 05, 25
Group 6. 08, 16, 20
Group 7. 07, 24

DISSIMILAR CLUSTERS

Negative Concepts

17
6

Positive Concepts

1
14
10
21

LITTLE CLUSTER RELATIONSHIP

Negative Concepts

9
2

Positive Concepts

04

The concepts that had little cluster relationship were examined first. These concepts showed scattered responses. According to members of the sample, concepts 2, 4, and 9 contained confusing language. The concepts demonstrated little cluster meaning, and were not retained.

The dissimilar concepts consistently clustered separate from the other concepts. The concepts are either confusing statements or excellent discriminators. These concepts differ in comparison to the similar cluster groupings. Concepts 1, 6, and 10 were retained for the Revised Rider Instrument because the content value was considered excellent. Concepts 14 and 17 were eliminated because the statements were confusing and ambiguous. Concept 21 was eliminated

because it contained excessive words of opposite meaning.

One concept from each of the similar cluster groupings was selected for inclusion in the Revised Rider Instrument.

The following concepts from the Rider Instrument (Appendix A) constituted the concepts used in the Revised Rider Instrument (Appendix B): 1, 3, 6, 7, 10, 12, 15, 18, 20, and 22.

Five of the concepts are positive statements relative to conflict management, and five of the concepts are negative statements relative to conflict management. The balance was not intended, but does present an even comparison of positive and negative concepts.

Hierarchical Clustering Schemes (Johnson, 1967) reduced the data of the Rider Instrument from 300 responses to the 50 responses used in the Revised Rider Instrument. The statistical procedure and technique proved itself invaluable in empirically reducing the concepts and polar adjective pairs necessary in measuring the attitudes of conflict management. The Revised Rider Instrument may be administered to large samples.

Test Administration

The revised Rider Instrument was distributed to a random sample of 170 officers. A total of 138 officers returned the instrument or 81 percent. Fifteen returns were rejected during a screening process, and were determined to be unsatisfactory for the following reasons:

1. Four failed to complete all the concepts.
2. Five noted that they did not understand the terminology or the concepts.
3. Two did not care to complete the instrument.
4. Three obviously checked answers without regard to the polar adjectives or the concepts. The answers were consistently either neutral or on the same side.

The screening process did not delete low scores. The deleted responses were administratively unsatisfactory.

Five of the fifteen rejections signed their names to the instrument. Each was personally interviewed concerning their lack of response to the instrument. Each felt he did not understand the terms, and could not make sense out of the instrument. After a detailed explanation on each concept, most of the apprehensions concerning the instrument were resolved.

Several members of the sample were interviewed concerning the terms and concepts. Most agreed that the terms were new but understandable. Some confusion was noted by the members of the sample that were unfamiliar with the term "conflict management".

A N of 123 constituted the total sample using the Revised Rider Instrument which was retained for hypotheses testing and exploratory analysis.

Hypothesis One

Each concept gives a different degree of meaning relative to the attitudes of conflict management. The concepts were analyzed separately, to present a detailed view of the sample's responses. Those officers in the sample that scored a neutral response on a concept were deleted for the total \bar{N} . The M_o in each concept is equal to 4 times the number of polar adjectives or 20. Neutral responses or scores of 20 do not judge direction or intensity. All scores ≥ 20 or ≤ 20 were included in the N under each concept.

The direction, either positive or negative, of the responses is a measure of the attitude expressed by each concept. A positive attitude would be indicated by a significant number of positive scores. The statistical hypothesis, as noted in Chapter III, stated an equal relationship.

The values and results for each concept are:

Concept 1

Total N = 123	Standard Deviation (s) = 5.3
Number scores greater than 20 (\bar{N}) = 85	Level of Significance (α) = .05
Number scores equal to 20 (NM_o) = 9	.05 z score (z) = 1.65
Number scores less than 20 (X) = 29	Rejection Region (K) = 70

Results: Any $\bar{N} > 70$ is significant at the .05 level of significance, therefore, reject the null hypothesis.

Concept 2

N = 123	s = 5.54
\bar{N} = 93	α = .05
NM_o = 6	z = 1.65
X = 24	K = 71

Results: Any $\bar{N} > 71$ is significant at the .05 level of significance, therefore, reject the null hypothesis.

Concept 3

$N = 123$
 $\bar{N} = 90$
 $NM_o = 8$
 $X = 25$

$s = 5.36$
 $\alpha = .05$
 $z = 1.65$
 $K = 70$

Results: Any $\bar{N} > 70$ is significant at the .05 level of significance, therefore, reject the null hypothesis.

Concept 4

$N = 123$
 $\bar{N} = 93$
 $NM_o = 5$
 $X = 25$

$s = 5.36$
 $\alpha = .05$
 $z = 1.65$
 $K = 70$

Results: Any $\bar{N} > 70$ is significant at the .05 level of significance, therefore, reject the null hypothesis.

Concept 5

$N = 123$
 $\bar{N} = 64$
 $NM_o = 11$
 $X = 48$

$s = 5.29$
 $\alpha = .05$
 $z = 1.65$
 $K = 70$

Results: Any $\bar{N} > 70$ is significant at the .05 level of significance, therefore, accept the null hypothesis.

Concept 6

$N = 123$
 $\bar{N} = 105$
 $NM_o = 5$
 $X = 13$

$s = 5.44$
 $\alpha = .05$
 $z = 1.65$
 $K = 71$

Results: Any $\bar{N} > 71$ is significant at the .05 level of significance, therefore, reject the null hypothesis.

Concept 7

$N = 123$
 $\bar{N} = 108$
 $NM_o = 5$
 $X = 10$

$s = 5.44$
 $\alpha = .05$
 $z = 1.65$
 $K = 71$

Results: Any $\bar{N} > 71$ is significant at the .05 level of significance, therefore, reject the null hypothesis.

Concept 8

N = 123

\bar{N} = 64

NM₀ = 4

X = 55

s = 5.46

α = .05

z = 1.65

K = 71

Results: Any $\bar{N} > 71$ is significant at the .05 level of significance, therefore, accept the null hypothesis.

Concept 9

N = 123

\bar{N} = 121

NM₀ = 0

X = 2

s = 5.5

α = .05

z = 1.65

K = 71

Results: Any $\bar{N} > 71$ is significant at the .05 level of significance, therefore, reject the null hypothesis.

Concept 10

N = 123

\bar{N} = 113

NM₀ = 1

X = 9

s = 5.5

α = .05

z = 1.65

K = 71

Results: Any $\bar{N} > 71$ is significant at the .05 level of significance, therefore, reject the null hypothesis.

All the concepts, except concepts 5 and 8, reject the null hypothesis at the .05 level of significance. The null is also rejected at the .001 level of significance. Concepts 5 and 8 failed to reject the null, at the .05 level of significance, by only a few responses.

Concept 5 (The "win or lose" philosophy has no place in conflict management.) is a positive statement that may be difficult to understand unless the individual has the knowledge about a "win or lose"

philosophy. It may also indicate a competitive desire to win in a large number of the sample.

Concept 8 (To search for common points of interest in a conflict situation will only be construed as a sign of weakness by the opposing side) is a negative statement that recommends a cooperative strategy of conflict management. The sample, unless familiar with the literature on conflict management, may be more conditioned to a competitive atmosphere.

Concept 5 and 8 are borderline cases that are close to either acceptance or rejection of the null hypothesis. The other eight concepts are convincing in rejection of the null hypothesis.

The operational hypothesis (stage 3) is therefore accepted as true. The middle level career Army officers in the sample have significantly positive attitudes relative to the concepts of conflict management. This is an indication of a flexible style of management. The Army and its middle level career officers are adopting a flexible approach to management and a positive view of conflict management.

Hypothesis Two

In this study, we have three subgroups within the sample of Army officers, and we want to determine whether there are any significant differences among the means. A one-way analysis of variance test

will determine whether the subgroup means vary more than may be expected from the sample means.

The three subgroups in the sample are titled combat arms ((CA) $\bar{N} = 64$), combat support ((CS) $\bar{N} = 22$), and combat service support ((CSS) $\bar{N} = 37$). Each individual score was placed under the appropriate branch subgroup title. A one-way analysis of variance test examined each concept separately.

The F ratio for each concept is determined by MS_B / MS_W . If the obtained F is greater than 3.07 (.05 level of significance), then the null hypothesis $CA = CS = CSS$ is rejected.

The analysis of variance test data for each concept is:

Concept 1

	<u>Source</u>	<u>Sum of Squares</u>	<u>df</u>	<u>Mean Squares</u>	<u>F Ratio</u>
MS_B	(Between Subgroups)	136.07	2	68.04	1.98
MS_W	(Within Subgroups)	4121.25	120	34.34	
MS_Y	(Total)	4257.32	122		

Concept 2

MS_B	34.30	2	17.15	0.47
MS_W	4343.62	120	36.20	
MS_Y	4377.92	122		

Concept 3

MS_B	53.95	2	26.98	0.56
MS_W	5760.65	120	48.01	
MS_Y	5814.60	122		

Concept 4

<u>Source</u>	<u>Sum of Squares</u>	<u>df</u>	<u>Mean Squares</u>	<u>F Ratio</u>
MS _B	217.16	2	108.58	2.94
MS _W	4427.25	120	36.89	
MS _Y	4644.41	122		

Concept 5

MS _B	95.56	2	47.78	0.95
MS _W	6028.85	120	50.24	
MS _Y	6124.41	122		

Concept 6

MS _B	145.13	2	72.57	1.42
MS _W	6119.03	120	50.99	
MS _Y	6264.03	122		

Concept 7

MS _B	30.33	2	15.17	0.47
MS _W	3844.27	120	32.04	
MS _Y	3876.60	122		

Concept 8

MS _B	74.74	2	37.37	0.71
MS _W	6301.60	120	52.51	
MS _Y	6371.60	122		

Concept 9

MS _B	65.59	2	32.795	1.91
MS _W	2058.77	120	17.15	
MS _Y	2124.35	122		

Concept 10

<u>Source</u>	<u>Sum of Squares</u>	<u>df</u>	<u>Mean Squares</u>	<u>F Ratio</u>
MS _B	13.25	2	6.625	0.23
MS _W	3485.16	120	29.04	
MS _Y	3498.41	122		

Prior to accepting the null hypothesis with an F ratio less than 1, a test using the inverse relationship of the F ratio is necessary (Ostle, 1963). If the inverse F ratio is less than the reversed critical F ratio relationship (fd is 19.5 at the .05 level of significance), the F ratio is not significant. The null hypothesis is then accepted.

$$F_{.05, 02, 120} = \frac{1}{F_{.05, 120, 02}} < F_{.05, 120, 02} = 19.5$$

(Bowker and Lieberman, 1959)

<u>Concept</u>	<u>F Ratio</u>	<u>Inverse F</u>	<u>.05 Critical F 120/2</u>	<u>F Ratio</u>
2	0.47	$\frac{1}{0.47} = 2.13$	19.5	Not significant
3	0.56	$\frac{1}{0.56} = 1.78$	19.5	Not significant
5	0.95	$\frac{1}{0.95} = 1.05$	19.5	Not significant
7	0.47	$\frac{1}{0.47} = 2.13$	19.5	Not significant
8	0.71	$\frac{1}{0.71} = 1.41$	19.5	Not significant
10	0.23	$\frac{1}{0.23} = 4.35$	19.5	Not significant

A \bar{N} of 22 in the CS group was less than the desired \bar{N} of 30, as noted in Chapter III. The CS group is not critically small. The

requirement that the raw scores within each group be normally distributed is still met. An inspection of the means (Table 4-I) reveals little difference between the groups.

TABLE 4-I
Means and Standard Deviations
for
Each Group

<u>Concept</u>	<u>Means</u>			<u>Standard Deviations</u>		
	<u>CA</u>	<u>CS</u>	<u>CSS</u>	<u>CA</u>	<u>CS</u>	<u>CSS</u>
1	21.9	23.0	24.2	5.7	5.6	6.0
2	24.4	25.8	25.1	5.9	5.4	6.4
3	23.4	24.7	24.8	6.7	6.9	7.0
4	23.7	24.7	26.8	5.5	7.5	5.9
5	20.2	17.8	19.5	6.5	7.2	7.7
6	27.9	29.2	26.1	6.6	7.2	7.7
7	26.5	27.3	27.5	5.4	6.8	5.2
8	22.0	23.5	21.3	6.9	7.7	7.2
9	30.4	31.9	31.8	4.3	3.6	4.0
10	28.8	28.8	28.1	5.7	3.7	5.3

The variance from within the groups must be approximately equal. This is, of course, true if the standard deviations are approximately equal. An inspection of the data (Table 4-I) shows little difference between the standard deviations for each concept.

The close similarity of the means and standard deviations between the subgroups causes a very low MS_B and in turn an F ratio < 1 . The conclusion of an inverse F ratio $<$ the reverse .05 critical ratio is merely that we do not reject the null hypothesis.

Accepting the null hypothesis increases the chances of a Type II error (β). The probability of β is decreased as N increases in size, and as the power of the statistical test increases. The probability of β is also decreased by the use of a one-tailed test, if the mean is in the critical region. Inspection of the data indicates a few diverse low scores in each group, thus placing the majority of the scores above the mean. The fact that the N in this sample equals 123, the use of a one-tailed test at .05 level of significance, and the power of the one-way analysis of variance equals .95, then the chances of a Type II error are greatly reduced (Siegel, 1954). In this example, the null hypothesis may be accepted with the confidence that the probability of a Type II error (β) is fairly close to the probability of a Type I error (α).

The null hypothesis is accepted for all ten concepts, therefore, there is no difference between the attitudes of the branch groups relative to the concepts of conflict management. A consistent view of conflict management by the subgroups indicates a consistent attitude toward a more flexible managerial style among middle level career Army officers. The attitudes of conflict management are not subject to branch group influences, but maintain a consistency without regard to branch affiliation.

Determination of Attitude Relationships

The exploratory view of the sample, using HCS, pictured the relationship between the attitudes of conflict management and the

independent variables. Each individual score was correlated with the positive concepts, the negative concepts, and the total concepts. The resulting trees listed the computer identification number and the fourteen independent variables as labels for each individual. The clusters were then examined for similarity and dissimilarity within the list of independent variables.

The trees which pictured the positive concepts and the negative concepts showed little difference from the trees involving the total concepts. For this reason, only the HCS using the total concept scores will be discussed. The trees are depicted in Table 4-J and Table 4-K.

The clusters of similarity and dissimilarity outline a group of individuals according to their attitudes relative to the concepts of conflict management. The groups are identified by their labels, which are a list of responses to a demographic questionnaire (Appendix C). The HCS clusters each individual according to his Spearman Correlation Coefficient (RHO). The responses to the demographic questionnaire (independent variables) are significant, if the responses are in several clusters or completely different. The clusters of similarity and dissimilarity are based on the consistency of the concept scores relative to the other concept scores correlated over all ten concepts. When clustering is encouraged, the individuals that cluster low will have a greater degree of inconsistency over the ten concepts.

Each of the fourteen independent variables are unique and are addressed separately.

(1) Age: Little cluster of similarity was noted in the sample. The older members of the sample were scattered throughout the clusters. Some officers in the younger age group did cluster dissimilar to the sample. The age deviation of the sample is relatively small. Further study with a diverse age group is necessary prior to any conclusions as to the effect age has on the attitudes of conflict management.

(2) Rank: The majority of the sample holds the rank of Major. It is significant that the non-Majors failed to cluster either similar or dissimilar to the Majors. No consistency of cluster or non-cluster by the non-Majors was evident in the sample.

(3) Years of Service: A few clusters of similarity occurred among the 10 to 15 year group but years of service generally scattered throughout the sample. As with age, the range was relatively small in the sample, and further study is necessary prior to any conclusions.

(4) Race: The majority of the sample is caucasian. The significance of the clusters is that the non-caucasian officers did not cluster similar or dissimilar. Several clusters of similarity exist with total caucasian, but mathematically this was expected due to the large number of caucasians in the sample. The non-whites were scattered throughout the clusters.

(5) Marital Status: Only a few members of the sample were not married. None of the non-married officers in the sample clustered similar or dissimilar.

(6) Branch: The branch groups failed to cluster throughout the sample. The only cluster of similarity (N = 6 CA officers) correlated low in value. A low value cluster of similarity indicates a relatively low score consistency between the individuals. The significance of the poor cluster relationship is that there is no difference in the branch group attitudes relative to conflict management.

(7) Secondary or Primary Zone Promotion: Most officers are promoted from the primary zone, and a relatively small percent are promoted in the secondary zone. No consistency of cluster, similar or dissimilar, was noted for secondary zone officers.

(8) Months in Command Time: The responses of the sample did not cluster similar or dissimilar. There appears to be no relationship between command time and attitudes of conflict management. A wide variety of responses was noted in the data. The range is sufficiently diverse to increase the confidence in the findings.

(9) Months in Staff Time: There appears to be a very high relationship between staff time and the attitudes of conflict management. Almost half the clusters of similarity indicated considerable staff time. The other clusters of similarity showed scattered responses. It is important to note that the clusters of dissimilarity also noted a high relationship to staff time. The officers with considerable staff time that clustered low in consistency also failed to cluster dissimilar. Staff time is directly associated to the distance between individual scores relative to the concepts of conflict


management. Generally, officers that grouped together in clusters, because of consistency of distance between scores, had high staff time.

(10) Level of Education: The different levels of education are scattered throughout the clusters of similarity and dissimilarity with the exception of a few small clusters. The master degree level of education did cluster in a few cases. The other levels of education were mixed throughout the remaining clusters. The relationship of the level of education to attitudes of conflict management appears slight.

(11) Field of Study: The responses to the concepts of conflict management have some clustering effect in regards to the field of study. Several small clusters of either social sciences or business related were noted in the sample. The frequency of the clusters is inadequate to draw a conclusion. There appears to be a small degree of association between the attitudes of conflict management and the field of study.

(12) Part of the Country Prior to Entering Army: There is no relationship between the part of the country an officer came from prior to entering the Army and the attitudes of conflict management. The responses demonstrate a complete lack of cluster relationship. Most officers have traveled extensively in the Army prior to attending the Command and General Staff College. The relationship to a particular part of the country is shallow after considerable absence.

(13) Size Community Prior to Entering Army: Several small clusters had similar background with respect to community size. Only those officers from farms, small towns, or small cities showed consistency in the response to the concepts of conflict management. The



officers from medium or large cities were scattered throughout the sample. The attachment to a small community may be expected to be more binding than the attachment to a large community. Most Army posts are relatively small communities. The connection of the past to the present community life for those officers from small communities is not as different as those officers from medium or large cities. There appears to be a connection between the small community background and the attitudes of conflict management.

(14) Family Income Prior to Entering Army: Those officers from the higher income family groups (\$8,000 - \$12,000 and over \$12,000) demonstrated a cluster relationship. Several family income clusters of similarity and dissimilarity were noted in the sample. The consistency of scores indicates a relationship between the higher income background with the attitudes of conflict management. No consistency was noted in the lower family income groups.

The HCS examined the data relationships in an exploratory analysis. It is evident that some of the independent variables have little or no relationship to the attitudes of conflict management. Some independent variables indicate a definite relationship to the attitudes of conflict management, and necessitate further study to determine the degree of relationship or difference.

The significance of the HCS trees is that the minority groups in age, rank, and marital status did not cluster together. Additionally, significant clusters were noted among officers with high staff time. Little, if any, relationship exists between branch groups, time in

command, level of education, part of the country, and the attitudes of conflict management expressed by the sample. A degree of relationship exists between field of study, high family income background, small community background, and the attitudes of conflict management expressed by the sample.

Further testing is recommended where a relationship exists within the sample. The HCS is not meant to be conclusive evidence but a discriminator for further study.

The interesting observation that staff time has a high degree of cluster relationship and command time has little, if any, cluster relationship may be the result of "longsightedness" (Boulding, 1966) from experience in conflict situations. Staff officers are involved in sifting through the details and issues to present the commander with a recommendation. The commander is more concerned with decisions based on staff recommendations. The sample indicates a clustering of those officers who have a considerable amount of staff time. This may also indicate experience in dealing with conflict situations. The relationship is worthy of additional study.

The same results were obtained from the examination of the HCS relationship of branch groups and the one-way analysis of variance test on hypothesis two. The empirical evidence shows a lack of cluster relationship between the branch groups, and gives further credence to accept the null in hypothesis two.

ENCOURAGES CLUSTERING

CONTINUED PAGE 3

ALL SUBJECTS USING ALL CONCEPT SCORES

[illegible]

TABLE 4-K

Hierarchical Clustering Scheme

Clusters of Dissimilarity

N = 123

Reliability

Parallel procedures were followed for the administration of the Rider Instrument and the Revised Rider Instrument. Normally, parallelism is sufficient to assert that a high degree of reliability exists (Thorndike, 1971). The test for reliability was used to assess the degree of reliability because:

(1) An extended period of time existed between the administration of the Rider Instrument and the Revised Rider Instrument. Nine weeks passed between tests. Originally, three or four weeks delay was considered adequate. The unplanned delay was caused by computer hardware and program problems encountered in matching the HCS to the Command and General Staff College computer system (William B. Allard, personal communication, 2 February, 1976). Lower reliability scores are expected over an extended time period (Thorndike, 1971).

(2) The Revised Rider Instrument constituted concepts that originally were among the twenty-five concepts in the Rider Instrument. The selected concept scores were compared to the same concepts in the Rider Instrument, but the different test organization would affect the degree of reliability. The tests are basically parallel, but the Revised Rider Instrument is shorter. The difference will decrease the degree of reliability (Thorndike, 1971).

(3) The concepts employ terminology that is confusing, unless the individual has experienced the terms in his background. A definition of conflict and a description of the level of conflict being

examined was included in a cover letter to each individual. If the confusion over terms exists, then reliability scores will be lower.

Two tests for reliability analyzed the scores of the pre-test group using the Rider Instrument and the post-test group using the Revised Rider Instrument. Only the scores of the five polar adjective pairs and the concepts retained in the Revised Rider Instrument were extracted from the pre-test group.

Normally, one test for reliability would suffice, but most social science books do not mention intraclass correlation. Therefore, the Pearson Product-Moment (r_p) will give the reader a more popular measurement to compare with the intraclass coefficient (r_{kk}).

The Pearson correlation coefficient is not considered as statistically or logically sound for a measurement of homogeneity when compared to the intraclass correlation coefficient.

The Pearson r is sensitive to the proportionality of the differences between the two sets of scores. The intraclass r is sensitive to the degree of similarity between the two sets of scores. The Pearson r would be 1 for a set of scores 1, 2, and 3 compared to a set of scores 100, 200, and 300, whereas, the intraclass r would be very low (William R. Larson, personal communication, 19 March 1976).

The formula for Pearson Product-Moment is:

$$r_p = \frac{\frac{\sum XY}{N} - \bar{X}\bar{Y}}{s_x s_y} \quad (\text{McCollough, 1974, p. 328})$$

X = first set of scores

Y = second set of scores

The formula for intraclass correlation is:

$$r_{kk} = \frac{V_r - V_e}{V_r} \quad (\text{Guilford, 1965, p. 300})$$

V_r = Variance between rows, where each row stands for a person

V_e = Variance for residuals (or error)

The raw data for each formula was computed from the two sets of scores. The program and data sums are listed in Table L. The correlation coefficients for each concept are:

<u>Concept</u>	<u>Intraclass</u>	<u>Product-Moment</u>
1	.68	.52
2	.56	.39
3	.50	.34
4	.39	.24
5	.04	.02
6	.84	.75
7	.64	.55
8	.14	.07
9	.80	.70
10	.10	.05

Concepts 4, 5, 8, and 10 indicate a low r_{kk} . Several members of the sample were interviewed to determine a possible reason. Each concurred that the terms conflict and conflict management were confusing. Most were not sure what was meant by a "win or lose philosophy" in concept 5.

It was determined that the measurements were reliable for those who understood the terminology in the concepts. The erratic scores and low reliability indicate confusion in some concepts. Overall,

the Revised Rider Instrument is considered a reliable measure of the attitudes of conflict management, but an additional description of the terms may be necessary.

The researcher must weigh the benefits of a high reliability coefficient against inflated results. It is far more valuable to learn the actual feeling of a sample than it is to create a discolored view of conflict management.

The problem of low reliability is diminished when the two or three erratic scores are dropped in the low r_{kk} concepts, and the r_{kk} reaches an acceptable standard.

An inspection of the means and standard deviations (Table 4-L) reveals little variation between the means and all within the standard deviations. A few scores, in the extreme, alter the remaining scores, and drastically reduce the degree of reliability, as measured by the intraclass coefficient.

TABLE 4-1
Data For Reliability
Computations for Each Concept
Concept 1

<u>Source</u>	<u>Sum of Squares</u>	<u>df</u>	<u>V</u>	<u>Mean</u>		<u>Standard Deviation</u>	
				<u>Set 1</u>	<u>Set 2</u>	<u>Set 1</u>	<u>Set 2</u>
Rows	1320.74	29	45.54	21.8	25.7	5.7	5.1
Columns	232.07	1					
Remainder	416.53	29	14.36				
Total	1969.74	59					

Concept 2

Rows	1412.68	29	48.72	24.7	28.8	6.2	5.5
Columns	252.15	1					
Remainder	625.35	29	21.51				
Total	2290.18	59					

Concept 3

Rows	1062.74	29	36.65	25.1	27.1	5.3	5.0
Columns	60.01	1					
Remainder	528.99	29	18.24				
Total	1201.74	59					

Concept 4

Rows	1311.6	29	45.23	26.3	27.3	5.9	6.0
Columns	13.07	1					
Remainder	796.93	29	27.48				
Total	2121.6	59					

Concept 5

Rows	1637.35	29	56.46	21.7	22.2	7.3	7.3
Columns	2.82	1					
Remainder	1562.68	29	53.89				
Total	3202.85	59					

				<u>Concept 6</u>		<u>Standard</u>	
	<u>Sum of</u>				<u>Mean</u>	<u>Deviation</u>	
<u>Source</u>	<u>Squares</u>	<u>df</u>	<u>Y</u>	<u>Set 1</u>	<u>Set 2</u>	<u>Set 1</u>	<u>Set 2</u>
Rows	2501.94	29	86.27	27.9	27.4	6.0	7.8
Columns	4.27	1					
Remainder	395.73	29	13.65				
Total	2901.94	59					

			<u>Concept 7</u>				
Rows	797.4	29	27.5	28.0	29.6	4.2	4.1
Columns	38.47	1					
Remainder	230.53	29	7.95				
Total	1066.4	59					

			<u>Concept 8</u>				
Rows	1511.35	29	52.12	24.1	24.7	6.3	7.4
Columns	6.02	1					
Remainder	1307.48	29	45.08				
Total	2824.85						

			<u>Concept 9</u>				
Rows	642.15	29	22.14	30.8	32.5	4.1	2.9
Columns	40.02	1					
Remainder	131.48	29	4.53				
Total	813.65	59					

			<u>Concept 10</u>				
Rows	832.08	29	28.7	28.3	28.8	5.6	4.7
Columns	3.75	1					
Remainder	758.75	29	26.16				
Total	1594.58	59					

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Summary

The purpose of this study was to measure the attitudes of the middle level career Army officers based on the concepts of conflict management. The scope of the study narrowed the view to the interpersonal and intergroup levels of conflict.

Conflict situations, if uncontrolled, may produce undesirable outcomes. The management of conflict, through strategies, is the best assurance for a functional outcome. The strategies of conflict management may be learned if the individual is willing to learn. The assessment of the attitude relative to conflict management is a crucial step in the analysis of conflict within the Army.

The review of the literature encompassed numerous related fields to the subject of conflict management and was quite extensive. Several conclusions and recommendations, analogous to conflict management and its related fields of study, were developed from the literature.

The Rider Instrument, using Osgood's semantic differential, was selected as an effective measurement of the attitudes relative to conflict management, but its limitations prevented its use with a large sample. For this reason, a revision of the Rider Instrument (referred to as the Revised Rider Instrument in the study) was designed, and subsequently termed the Rider-Coughlin Instrument (RCI).

employing a statistical procedure called Hierarchical Clustering Scheme (Johnson, 1967). The empirically designed RCI proved to be simple to administer, easy to complete, and quick to score.

Two statistical inference tests, a one-tailed binomial test and a one-way analysis of variance test, separately analyzed each concept of conflict management at the .05 level of significance, and determined that the middle level career Army officers have a significantly positive attitude relative to the concepts of conflict management without regard to branch group affiliation.

In an exploratory analysis, using the Hierarchical Clustering Schemes (HCS), several independent variable relationships to conflict management were identified as significant or recommended for further study. HCS successfully analyzed the relationships between the independent variables and the attitudes of conflict management.

The reliability results of the RCI were lower than expected. Confusion over some of the terms caused a few extreme scores, which reduced the reliability coefficients.

Conclusions

The middle level career Army officers have significantly positive attitudes relative to the concepts of conflict management. Positive attitudes of conflict management are considered the first crucial step in the learning process of constructive conflict management. The crux to the constructive management of conflict lies in the problem-

solving approach, based on a positive attitude of conflict management. Leaders with a positive attitude of conflict management that develop a staff or organization, based on a cooperative atmosphere of the problem-solving approach aimed at long term solutions, have a higher probability of a functional outcome in conflict situations.

The measurement of a positive attitude of conflict management is an indication of a flexible style of management. Several authors, Yarmolinsky (1971) and Moskos (1974), have also concluded that the Army is moving toward a more flexible style of management. This is contrary to the more autocratic style of management some authors traditionally associated with the Army.

The contention that the combat arms officers are remaining autocratic in managerial style is not borne out by this study. No difference exists in the attitudes relative to the concepts of conflict management according to the sample's three branch groups: combat arms, combat support, and combat service support. This conclusion is contrary to the views expressed by Yarmolinsky (1971) and Moskos (1974). In all fairness to these authors, the conclusion applies to only middle level career Army officers. The consistent view within the sub-groups of the sample is synonymous with the beliefs expressed by Likert and Bowers (1970). The trend toward a more flexible style of management is uniformly present throughout the three branch groups.

After an extensive review of the literature, this author concluded

that certain managerial traits are more conducive to the constructive management of conflict. These traits facilitate and develop within a cooperative, open, and mature atmosphere aimed at the problem-solving approach.

1. Open-mindedness. Leaders must not only be receptive to new ideas, but willing to openly test and generate innovations within the organization.
2. Learn to aim for long term solutions. The only consistent functional outcomes of conflict situations are derived from long term solutions. Short term answers invariably intensify the conflict, and fail to resolve the real problems behind the conflict.
3. Know the people involved. A leader may anticipate certain problem areas if he knows the people involved in a conflict situation. Many problems relate to the personalities involved, and can be resolved by a strategy aimed at the differences.
4. Surface the real issues. Conflict situations are often negotiated toward a settlement without addressing the real issues. These issues will resurface eventually. Leaders waste time re-addressing the same issues in varying forms. Leaders must seek out the real catalyst in a conflict situation in order to constructively manage the conflict.
5. Be able to say "I do not know." The real issues in a conflict situation may be clouded by misinformation. The desire for information often results in premature or deceiving information. Exact information is far more valuable to the leader. An "I do not know" answer, if it applies, carries the connotation of long term accuracy. The exact information may be available at a later time.
6. Build trust. An atmosphere of cooperation and trust must exist before long term solutions will surface. Trust is not immediate, but is developed over a period of time from mutual respect.
7. Openly rely on subordinates. A leader can not succeed alone, especially in a conflict situation. Conflict situations distract the leader's time and energy from the decision process. Subordinates think through the issues and present recommendations. The leader orients the process.

8. Strive for two-way communication. The leader must create an atmosphere in which subordinates feel free to present innovative solutions. Long term solutions require open and accurate channels of communication within the organization. The management of conflict depends on excellent communication. Poor communication often intensifies conflicts and develops misleading information.

9. Live by the example imposed on others. The cooperative atmosphere will fail unless the leader exemplifies the same traits he desires in others. If the style to emulate stresses an open and cooperative atmosphere, then that example is the best assurance it will exist.

10. Work to improve the system from within. At times, conflict situations require immediate actions by the leader that by-pass normal channels within the organization. These alternate channels may not always be available or may break down from excessive use. The leader still has the responsibility to manage future conflicts of a similar nature. Conflicts may be avoided by planning or improving the system to manage them.

An innovative approach was employed to reduce the number of items in the Rider Instrument, and to determine the relationships between attitudes of conflict management and the independent variables.

HCS was an invaluable aid in the reduction of the concepts and polar adjectives used in the Rider Instrument. HCS, a data reduction technique, empirically clustered the similarities and dissimilarities of the responses. Based on these results, certain concepts and polar adjectives were retained for enclosure in the RCI. The RCI proved to be successful with large samples, and easily analyzed with published computer packages.

An exploratory analysis of the responses by HCS, determined the cluster relationships between the attitudes of conflict management and

the independent variables. The following results are significant:

(1) Officers with considerable staff time clustered consistently in their relationship to the attitudes of conflict management.

(2) Branch groups did not show any cluster relationship to the attitudes of conflict management, which was consistent with the results from the one-way analysis of variance test.

(3) Command time and secondary zone promotion did not demonstrate any cluster relationship to the attitudes of conflict management.

(4) Age, rank, years of service, race, and marital status had little range variation within the sample. It is significant that none of the groups in the extremes of the range or small in size within these independent variables demonstrated a cluster relationship.

(5) Officers from small communities clustered together with some consistency, as did officers from high income families.

(6) Level of education and field of study showed slight cluster relationship to the attitudes of conflict management.

Relatively few books in the field of Social Science, which deal in statistical procedures, mention the intraclass coefficient as a measure of reliability. The intraclass coefficient proved to be a more statistically and logically sound indicator of test-retest reliability than the more traditionally used Pearson Product-Moment coefficient.

Recommendations

The foundation of the recommendations centers on the need for great-

er emphasis, awareness, education, and study within the Army on the subject of conflict management. Some general and specific recommendations are advanced. It is hoped that the conclusions of this study will be applied and additional research will be stimulated.

Leaders at all levels of the Army should capitalize on the findings of this study. A positive attitude of conflict management exists within the middle level of the Army. This attitude can act as the basis for an open, cooperative, and mature system of conflict management. The benefits gained from a cooperative atmosphere of conflict management far outweigh the damaging results that may occur if conflict situations are stifled or uncontrolled.

Leadership training at all levels of the Army should increase the emphasis on problem-solving techniques as a basic leadership tool. Leadership courses in the Army presently teach the techniques that the literature on conflict management stresses as the most conducive to the functional management of conflict. The instruction should also stress long term solutions within a cooperative atmosphere.

Greater awareness of the interrelationship of conflict and change is necessary. Leaders within the Army must not only be change agents, but also conflict managers. Changes and conflicts are mutual ingredients of progress. Striving for change is insufficient unless the long term effects of the potential conflicts are contemplated in advance.

The middle level career officer is in need of additional education relative to the strategies and terminology of conflict management.

The officer attending the Command and General Staff College finds little contact with the current teachings in the field of conflict management. Several courses touch on the term conflict, but few discuss in detail its management.

Games, such as, cooperation versus competition, emphasizing the strategies of conflict management should be implemented in the core curriculum or the courses of the college that relate to management theory, staff techniques, interpersonal relations, leadership, and human resource development. The games may be oriented toward a particular scenario or case study. An example has been designed for inclusion in Advanced Staff Direction, Course 1603, Command and General Staff College (Appendix D).

It is recommended that officers rotate to a staff assignment upon completion of a command position. Officers with considerable staff time have a definite cluster relationship to the attitudes of conflict management. The experience or "longsightedness" (Boulding, 1966, p. 245) in dealing with conflict situations in staff positions may have a learning effect on the attitudes of conflict management. Officers can learn, if they are willing, how to manage conflict. Serving in staff positions appears to be an excellent vehicle.

Additional study is recommended to further assess the association of staff experience with the attitudes of conflict management. Certain staff positions may involve a greater degree of contact with conflict situations. The level of the staff in the chain of command may also

have a bearing on the attitudes of conflict management. The scores of the RCI could be compared with position and level, as well as staff time. This recommendation also raises the question as to the amount of conflict situations associated with each staff position.

The relationships of some independent variables with the attitudes of conflict management are also recommended for further study. Independent variables, such as, age, rank, race, time in service, and marital status had little range variation in the sample. A greater range variation is needed to ascertain their influence on the attitudes of conflict management.

The comparison of the scores of the RCI and other types of instruments is recommended. In the review of the literature, several authors asserted that the type of personality is directly associated with attitudes of conflict management. This author asserts that a positive attitude of conflict management is indicative of a flexible style of management. These assertions may be empirically accepted or rejected by comparing the individual's score on the RCI to a specific type of instrument.

Expanded study is recommended on the application of the Hierarchical Clustering Scheme in the Army. The Hierarchical Clustering Scheme proved to be a practical procedure in reducing vast amounts of data to manageable size. HCS has far reaching use in other fields of research related to the Army. An example is the interpretation of

war game results. Data from numerous iterations may be analyzed to determine which strategy proved most effective in a particular setting. The same use also applies to various strategies of conflict management in a particular setting.

The RCI may be adapted to a machine sensitive score sheet for extremely large samples. One answer sheet, with seven responses per item, will accommodate all the items in each instrument. Some grading machines do not maintain a high degree of accuracy. Hand scoring of the RCI is recommended unless confidence in the hardware system is high.

Overview

This research has examined a subject that is universal to our society, military organization, and individuals. Conflict permeates our lives in varying degrees and outcomes. The Army gives the leader numerous resources to accomplish his mission. These resources produce conflict situations that distract the leader from his orientation to accomplish the mission. Leaders at all levels of the Army must learn to manage conflicts or pay a price in mission or resource deficiency.

I hope this study is the initial step in the education of our leaders in conflict management.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A
THE RIDER INSTRUMENT

Instructions

The purpose of this instrument is to measure the meanings of certain concepts associated with conflict situations. You are requested to judge these concepts against a series of bi-polar adjectives or descriptive scales. In responding to the instrument, please make your judgments on the basis of what these concepts mean to you. There is no right or wrong answer.

On each page of this booklet you will find a different concept to be judged and beneath it a set of scales. You are to rate the concept on each of these scales in order.

Here is how you are to use these scales:

If you feel that the concept at the top of the page is very closely related to one end of the scale, you should place your check-mark as follows:

fair X : : : : : : unfair

OR

fair : : : : : : X unfair

If you feel that the concept is quite closely related to one or the other end of the scale (but not extremely), you should place your check-mark as follows:

strong : X : : : : weak

OR

strong : : : : : X : weak

Permission for the use of this instrument must be referred to Noah H. Rider, Georgia State University, Department of Educational Administration, Atlanta, Georgia 30302.

If the concept seems only slightly related to one side as opposed to the other side (but is not really neutral), then you should check as follows:

active : : X : : : passive

OR

active : : : : X : : passive

The direction toward which you check, of course, depends upon which of the two ends of the scale seem most characteristic of the concept you're judging.

If you consider the concept to be neutral on the scale, both sides of the scale equally associated with the concept, or if the scale is completely irrelevant, unrelated to the concept, then you should place your check-mark in the middle space:

safe : : X : : dangerous

IMPORTANT: Place your check-marks in the middle of spaces, not on the boundaries:

THIS NOT THIS

: : : X : :
 : : : : : :

Be sure you check every scale for every concept--do not omit any.

Work at fairly high speed. Do not worry or puzzle over individual items. It is your first impressions, the immediate "feelings" about the items, that we want. On the other hand, please do not be careless, because we want your true impressions.

Conflict within an organization can indicate positive changes are occurring.

false	:	:	:	:	:	:	true
meaningful	:	:	:	:	:	:	meaningless
worthless	:	:	:	:	:	:	valuable
dull	:	:	:	:	:	:	sharp
unsuccessful	:	:	:	:	:	:	successful
harmonious	:	:	:	:	:	:	dissonant
strong	:	:	:	:	:	:	weak
foolish	:	:	:	:	:	:	wise
good	:	:	:	:	:	:	bad
progressive	:	:	:	:	:	:	regressive
positive	:	:	:	:	:	:	negative
disreputable	:	:	:	:	:	:	reputable

When the value systems of opposing parties are not identical, settlement of conflict is impossible.

progressive	regressive
meaningful	meaningless
wise	foolish
unsuccessful	successful
disreputable	reputable
positive	negative
bad	good
weak	strong
worthless	valuable
dissonant	harmonious
sharp	dull
true	false

To be successful the administrator should not accept
conflict among the members of his organization.

false	:	:	:	:	:	:	true
meaningful	:	:	:	:	:	:	meaningless
worthless	:	:	:	:	:	:	valuable
dull	:	:	:	:	:	:	sharp
unsuccessful	:	:	:	:	:	:	successful
harmonious	:	:	:	:	:	:	dissonant
strong	:	:	:	:	:	:	weak
foolish	:	:	:	:	:	:	wise
good	:	:	:	:	:	:	bad
progressive	:	:	:	:	:	:	regressive
positive	:	:	:	:	:	:	negative
disreputable	:	:	:	:	:	:	reputable

Conflict should not be viewed as undesirable.

progressive	_____	regressive
meaningful	_____	meaningless
wise	_____	foolish
unsuccessful	_____	successful
disreputable	_____	reputable
positive	_____	negative
bad	_____	good
weak	_____	strong
worthless	_____	valuable
dissonant	_____	harmonious
sharp	_____	dull
true	_____	false

Even though concessions must be made, conciliation in the early stages of a conflict should always be considered.

false	_____	true
meaningful	_____	meaningle
worthless	_____	valuable
dull	_____	sharp
unsuccessful	_____	successfu
harmonious	_____	dissonant
strong	_____	weak
foolish	_____	wise
good	_____	bad
progressive	_____	regressiv
positive	_____	negative
disreputable	_____	reputable

When a conflict is resolved, conflict management ends.

progressive	_____	regressive
meaningful	_____	meaningless
wise	_____	foolish
unsuccessful	_____	successful
disreputable	_____	reputable.
positive	_____	negative
bad	_____	good
weak	_____	strong
worthless	_____	valuable
dissonant	_____	harmonious
sharp	_____	dull
true	_____	false

Conflict is a necessary ingredient of change.

false	:	:	:	:	:	:	true
meaningful	:	:	:	:	:	:	meaningless
worthless	:	:	:	:	:	:	valuable
dull	:	:	:	:	:	:	sharp
unsuccessful	:	:	:	:	:	:	successful
harmonious	:	:	:	:	:	:	dissonant
strong	:	:	:	:	:	:	weak
foolish	:	:	:	:	:	:	wise
good	:	:	:	:	:	:	bad
progressive	:	:	:	:	:	:	regressive
positive	:	:	:	:	:	:	negative
disreputable	:	:	:	:	:	:	reputable

Conflict should be managed.

progressive	:	:	:	:	:	:	regressive
meaningful	:	:	:	:	:	:	meaningless
wise	:	:	:	:	:	:	foolish
unsuccessful	:	:	:	:	:	:	successful
disreputable	:	:	:	:	:	:	reputable
positive	:	:	:	:	:	:	negative
bad	:	:	:	:	:	:	good
weak	:	:	:	:	:	:	strong
worthless	:	:	:	:	:	:	valuable
dissonant	:	:	:	:	:	:	harmonious
sharp	:	:	:	:	:	:	dull
true	:	:	:	:	:	:	false

Conflict is to be avoided if an organization is to be successful.

false	:	:	:	:	:	:	true
meaningful	:	:	:	:	:	:	meaningless
worthless	:	:	:	:	:	:	valuable
dull	:	:	:	:	:	:	sharp
unsuccessful	:	:	:	:	:	:	successful
harmonious	:	:	:	:	:	:	dissonant
strong	:	:	:	:	:	:	weak
foolish	:	:	:	:	:	:	wise
good	:	:	:	:	:	:	bad
progressive	:	:	:	:	:	:	regressive
positive	:	:	:	:	:	:	negative
disreputable	:	:	:	:	:	:	reputable

The "win or lose" philosophy has no place in conflict management.

progressive	:	:	:	:	:	:	regressive
meaningful	:	:	:	:	:	:	meaningless
wise	:	:	:	:	:	:	foolish
unsuccessful	:	:	:	:	:	:	successful
disreputable	:	:	:	:	:	:	reputable
positive	:	:	:	:	:	:	negative
bad	:	:	:	:	:	:	good
weak	:	:	:	:	:	:	strong
worthless	:	:	:	:	:	:	valuable
dissonant	:	:	:	:	:	:	harmonious
sharp	:	:	:	:	:	:	dull
true	:	:	:	:	:	:	false

Determining the primary reason for a conflict is of little value in its resolution.

false	:	:	:	:	:	:	true
meaningful	:	:	:	:	:	:	meaningless
worthless	:	:	:	:	:	:	valuable
dull	:	:	:	:	:	:	sharp
unsuccessful	:	:	:	:	:	:	successful
harmonious	:	:	:	:	:	:	dissonant
strong	:	:	:	:	:	:	weak
foolish	:	:	:	:	:	:	wise
good	:	:	:	:	:	:	bad
progressive	:	:	:	:	:	:	regressive
positive	:	:	:	:	:	:	negative
disreputable	:	:	:	:	:	:	reputable

There are times in a conflict situation when it becomes necessary to violate moral-ethical standards.

progressive	_____	regressive
meaningful	_____	meaningless
wise	_____	foolish
unsuccessful	_____	successful
disreputable	_____	reputable
positive	_____	negative
bad	_____	good
weak	_____	strong
worthless	_____	valuable
dissonant	_____	harmonious
sharp	_____	dull
true	_____	false

The administrator must match extreme rhetoric with extreme rhetoric, epithet with epithet, ultimatum with ultimatum in order to be effective in a conflict situation.

false	:	:	:	:	:	:	true
meaningful	:	:	:	:	:	:	meaningless
worthless	:	:	:	:	:	:	valuable
dull	:	:	:	:	:	:	sharp
unsuccessful	:	:	:	:	:	:	successful
harmonious	:	:	:	:	:	:	dissonant
strong	:	:	:	:	:	:	weak
foolish	:	:	:	:	:	:	wise
good	:	:	:	:	:	:	bad
progressive	:	:	:	:	:	:	regressive
positive	:	:	:	:	:	:	negative
disreputable	:	:	:	:	:	:	reputable

A person who is cooperative and democratic within a group will not necessarily exhibit these tendencies in intergroup relations.

progressive	_____	regressive
meaningful	_____	meaningless
wise	_____	foolish
unsuccessful	_____	successful
disreputable	_____	reputable
positive	_____	negative
bad	_____	good
weak	_____	strong
worthless	_____	valuable
dissonant	_____	harmonious
sharp	_____	dull
true	_____	false

The injection of mutually desired goals to a meeting of representatives from antagonistic groups will usually lead to a reduction of hostilities.

false	_____	true
meaningful	_____	meaningless
worthless	_____	valuable
dull	_____	sharp
unsuccessful	_____	successful
harmonious	_____	dissonant
strong	_____	weak
foolish	_____	wise
good	_____	bad
progressive	_____	regressive
positive	_____	negative
disreputable	_____	reputable

In a social conflict, the authority structure should always protect and respect the right of the dissenting segment of population to protest, to be heard, to be received.

progressive	:	:	:	:	:	:	regressive
meaningful	:	:	:	:	:	:	meaningless
wise	:	:	:	:	:	:	foolish
unsuccessful	:	:	:	:	:	:	successful
disreputable	:	:	:	:	:	:	reputable.
positive	:	:	:	:	:	:	negative
bad	:	:	:	:	:	:	good
weak	:	:	:	:	:	:	strong
worthless	:	:	:	:	:	:	valuable
dissonant	:	:	:	:	:	:	harmonious
sharp	:	:	:	:	:	:	dull
true	:	:	:	:	:	:	false

The individual who possesses extreme consistency in attitude is most likely to be a successful manager of conflict.

false	_____	true
meaningful	_____	meaningless
worthless	_____	valuable
dull	_____	sharp
unsuccessful	_____	successful
harmonious	_____	dissonant
strong	_____	weak
foolish	_____	wise
good	_____	bad
progressive	_____	regressive
positive	_____	negative
disreputable	_____	reputable

To search for common points of interest in a conflict situation will only be construed as a sign of weakness by the opposing side.

progressive	_____	regressive
meaningful	_____	meaningless
wise	_____	foolish
unsuccessful	_____	successful
disreputable	_____	reputable
positive	_____	negative
bad	_____	good
weak	_____	strong
worthless	_____	valuable
dissonant	_____	harmonious
sharp	_____	dull
true	_____	false

Attempting to determine the true aim or goal of the parties involved in a conflict situation is of little value in its resolution.

false	_____	true
meaningful	_____	meaningless
worthless	_____	valuable
dull	_____	sharp
unsuccessful	_____	successful
harmonious	_____	dissonant
strong	_____	weak
foolish	_____	wise
good	_____	bad
progressive	_____	regressive
positive	_____	negative
disreputable	_____	reputable

Understanding how people feel about the issues involved in a conflict is as important as understanding the facts of the conflict.

progressive	_____	regressive
meaningful	_____	meaningless
wise	_____	foolish
unsuccessful	_____	successful
disreputable	_____	reputable
positive	_____	negative
bad	_____	good
weak	_____	strong
worthless	_____	valuable
dissonant	_____	harmonious
sharp	_____	dull
true	_____	false

In a conflict situation, the tough, strong, unyielding of principle, administrator is likely to intensify rather than resolve the conflict.

false	:	:	:	:	:	:	true
meaningful	:	:	:	:	:	:	meaningless
worthless	:	:	:	:	:	:	valuable
dull	:	:	:	:	:	:	sharp
unsuccessful	:	:	:	:	:	:	successful
harmonious	:	:	:	:	:	:	dissonant
strong	:	:	:	:	:	:	weak
foolish	:	:	:	:	:	:	wise
good	:	:	:	:	:	:	bad
progressive	:	:	:	:	:	:	regressive
positive	:	:	:	:	:	:	negative
disreputable	:	:	:	:	:	:	reputable

When involved in a conflict, never miss an opportunity to take an advantageous position regardless of the long-term effect.

progressive	_____	regressive
meaningful	_____	meaningless
wise	_____	foolish
unsuccessful	_____	successful
disreputable	_____	reputable
positive	_____	negative
bad	_____	good
weak	_____	strong
worthless	_____	valuable
dissonant	_____	harmonious
sharp	_____	dull
true	_____	false

Understanding the facts about a conflict is more important than understanding how people feel about the other parties involved.

false	_____	true
meaningful	_____	meaningless
worthless	_____	valuable
dull	_____	sharp
unsuccessful	_____	successful
harmonious	_____	dissonant
strong	_____	weak
foolish	_____	wise
good	_____	bad
progressive	_____	regressive
positive	_____	negative
disreputable	_____	reputable

Intergroup hostilities occur even when the individuals involved are normal, healthy, and socially well-adjusted people.

progressive	_____	regressive
meaningful	_____	meaningless
wise	_____	foolish
unsuccessful	_____	successful
disreputable	_____	reputable.
positive	_____	negative
bad	_____	good
weak	_____	strong
worthless	_____	valuable
dissonant	_____	harmonious
sharp	_____	dull
true	_____	false

Conflict can be avoided in a democracy.

false	_____	true
meaningful	_____	meaningless
worthless	_____	valuable
dull	_____	sharp
unsuccessful	_____	successful
harmonious	_____	dissonant
strong	_____	weak
foolish	_____	wise
good	_____	bad
progressive	_____	regressive
positive	_____	negative
disreputable	_____	reputable

APPENDIX B
THE RIDER-COUGHLIN INSTRUMENT

PART II

Instructions

The purpose of this instrument is to measure the meanings of certain concepts associated with conflict situations. You are requested to judge these concepts against a series of bi-polar adjectives or descriptive scales. In responding to the instrument, please make your judgments on the basis of what these concepts mean to you. There is no right or wrong answer.

On each page of this booklet you will find two different concepts to be judged and beneath it a set of scales. You are to rate the concept on each of these scales in order.

Here is how you are to use these scales:

If you feel that the concept at the top of the page is very closely related to one end of the scale, you should place your "X" as follows:

fair X : : : : : : unfair

OR

fair : : : : : : X unfair

If you feel that the concept is quite closely related to one or the other end of the scale (but not extremely), you should place your "X" as follows:

strong : X : : : : : weak

OR

strong : : : : : : X : weak

If the concept seems only slightly related to one side as opposed to the other side (but is not really neutral), then you should "X" as follows:

active : : X : : : : passive

OR

active : : : : X : : passive

Permission for the use of this instrument must be referred to Noah H. Rider and MAJ John F. Coughlin, Georgia State University, Department of Educational Administration, Atlanta, Georgia 30302.

The direction toward which you "X", of course, depends upon which of the two ends of the scale seem most characteristic of the concept you're judging.

If you consider the concept to be neutral on the scale, both sides of the scale equally associated with the concept, or if the scale is completely irrelevant, unrelated to the concept, then you should place your "X" in the middle space:

safe : : : X : : dangerous

IMPORTANT: Place your "X" mark in the middle of spaces, not on the boundaries:

				THIS				NOT THIS	
								X	
:	:	:	:	X	:	:	:	:	:

Be sure you "X" every scale for every concept -- do not omit any.

Work at fairly high speed. Do not worry or puzzle over individual items. It is your first impressions, the immediate "feelings" about the items, that we want. On the other hand, please do not be careless, because we want your true impressions.

1.

Conflict within an organization can indicate positive changes are occurring.

false	:	:	:	:	:	:	true
worthless	:	:	:	:	:	:	valuable
harmonious	:	:	:	:	:	:	dissonant
regressive	:	:	:	:	:	:	progressive
positive	:	:	:	:	:	:	negative

2.

To be successful the administrator should not accept conflict among the members of his organization.

progressive	:	:	:	:	:	:	regressive
positive	:	:	:	:	:	:	negative
worthless	:	:	:	:	:	:	valuable
dissonant	:	:	:	:	:	:	harmonious
true	:	:	:	:	:	:	false

3.

7 When a conflict is resolved, conflict management ends.

progressive	:	:	:	:	:	:	regressive
positive	:	:	:	:	:	:	negative
worthless	:	:	:	:	:	:	valuable
dissonant	:	:	:	:	:	:	harmonious
true	:	:	:	:	:	:	false

4.

Conflict is a necessary ingredient of change.

false	:	:	:	:	:	:	true
worthless	:	:	:	:	:	:	valuable
harmonious	:	:	:	:	:	:	dissonant
regressive	:	:	:	:	:	:	progressive
positive	:	:	:	:	:	:	negative

5.

The "win or lose" philosophy has no place in conflict management.

false	:	:	:	:	:	:	true
worthless	:	:	:	:	:	:	valuable
harmonious	:	:	:	:	:	:	dissonant
regressive	:	:	:	:	:	:	progressive
positive	:	:	:	:	:	:	negative

6.

There are times in a conflict situation when it becomes necessary to violate moral - ethical standards.

progressive	:	:	:	:	:	:	regressive
positive	:	:	:	:	:	:	negative
worthless	:	:	:	:	:	:	valuable
dissonant	:	:	:	:	:	:	harmonious
true	:	:	:	:	:	:	false

7.

The injection of mutually desired goals to a meeting of representatives from antagonistic groups will usually lead to a reduction of hostilities.

progressive	:	:	:	:	:	:	regressive
positive	:	:	:	:	:	:	negative
worthless	:	:	:	:	:	:	valuable
dissonant	:	:	:	:	:	:	harmonious
true	:	:	:	:	:	:	false

8.

To search for common points of interest in a conflict situation will only be construed as a sign of weakness by the opposing side.

false	:	:	:	:	:	:	true
worthless	:	:	:	:	:	:	valuable
harmonious	:	:	:	:	:	:	dissonant
regressive	:	:	:	:	:	:	progressive
positive	:	:	:	:	:	:	negative

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9.

Understanding how people feel about the issues involved in a conflict is as important as understanding the facts of the conflict.

false	:	:	:	:	:	:	true
worthless	:	:	:	:	:	:	valuable
harmonious	:	:	:	:	:	:	dissonant
regressive	:	:	:	:	:	:	progressive
positive	:	:	:	:	:	:	negative

10.

When involved in a conflict, never miss an opportunity to take an advantageous position regardless of the long-term effect.

progressive	:	:	:	:	:	:	regressive
positive	:	:	:	:	:	:	negative
worthless	:	:	:	:	:	:	valuable
dissonant	:	:	:	:	:	:	harmonious
true	:	:	:	:	:	:	false

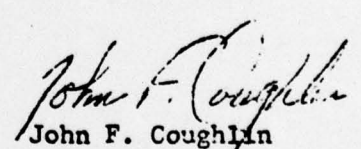
COVER LETTER AND DEMOGRAPHIC QUESTIONNAIRE

Return to: MAJ John F. Coughlin
Section: 8

Approved for Distr. to: Sections
8, 9, 11, 17


Class Director

1. I am engaged in a Master of Military Art and Science (MMAS) study at CGSC. The purpose of my study is to measure the attitudes associated with conflict management.
2. The Office of the Class Director has granted me permission to retest a small sample in Section 8, and test Sections 9, 11, and 17. I would greatly appreciate your assistance by completing the enclosed instrument. It will require approximately ten minutes of your time. Your responses will be of utmost importance, and contribute directly to my MMAS study.
3. A number has been assigned to your name by your group leader. The number enables me to contact you in case an administrative error occurs.
4. For the purpose of my study, I will use the following definition of conflict: "conflict exists in situations in which parties must divide or share resources, so that to some degree, the more one party gets the less others can have (Bruckman, 1974, p. 1)." The level I am examining is primarily interpersonal and interorganizational conflict.
5. Please return the completed instrument to your work group leader by Friday, 12 March 1976. Thank you, in advance, for your assistance.


John F. Coughlin
MAJ, Infantry
Section 8, CGSC

CONFLICT MANAGEMENT STUDY

PART I of this study requests data concerning your background. Circle the appropriate response number.

Part II requests your responses to concepts of conflict management. Please follow the instructions outlined in the Revised Rider Instrument.

PART I

- | | | | |
|--|--|---|-----------------------------|
| 1. AGE | 2. RANK | 3. TOTAL YEARS | 4. RACE |
| 1. 25-29 | 1. CPT | ACTIVE SERVICE | 1. Amer. Indian |
| 2. 30-34 | 2. MAJ | 1. 0-5 | 2. Caucasian |
| 3. 35-39 | 3. LTC | 2. 6-10 | 3. Negro (Black) |
| 4. 40 or over | | 3. 11-15 | 4. Oriental |
| | | 4. 16-20 | 5. Other |
| 5. MARITAL STATUS | 6. BRANCH | | 7. SECONDARY ZONE PROMOTION |
| 1. Single | 1. Combat Arms | | 1. Yes |
| 2. Married | 2. Combat Support | | 2. No |
| 3. Separated | 3. Combat Service Support | | |
| 4. Divorced | | | |
| 5. Widower | | | |
| 8. MONTHS IN COMMAND POSITION | 9. MONTHS IN STAFF POSITION | 10. WHAT IS THE HIGHEST LEVEL OF CIVILIAN EDUCATION YOU HAVE COMPLETED? | |
| 1. 0-6 | 1. 0-6 | 1. Some college | |
| 2. 7-12 | 2. 7-12 | 2. College graduate | |
| 3. 13-18 | 3. 13-18 | 3. Masters Degree | |
| 4. 19-24 | 4. 19-24 | 4. Ph. D. | |
| 5. 25 and over | 5. 25 and over | | |
| 11. IN WHAT FIELD OF STUDY DID YOU RECEIVE YOUR HIGHEST DEGREE? | 12. IN WHAT PART OF THE COUNTRY DID YOU LIVE MOST OF YOUR LIFE PRIOR TO ENTERING THE ARMY? | | |
| 1. Physical Sciences | 1. Northeast | | |
| 2. Social Sciences | 2. North Central | | |
| 3. Business Related | 3. South | | |
| 4. Engineer | 4. Midwest | | |
| | 5. Southwest | | |
| | 6. Far West | | |
| | 7. Other | | |
| 13. WHERE DID YOU LIVE MOST OF YOUR LIFE PRIOR TO ENTERING THE ARMY? | 14. WHAT WAS THE APPROXIMATE LEVEL OF INCOME OF YOUR FAMILY PRIOR TO ENTERING THE ARMY? | | |
| 1. Farm | 1. Less than \$3,000 | | |
| 2. Small town (Under 5,000) | 2. \$3,000-\$5,000 | | |
| 3. Small city (5,000-75,000) | 3. \$5,000-\$8,000 | | |
| 4. Suburb of a small city | 4. \$8,000-\$12,000 | | |
| 5. Medium city (75,000-500,000) | 5. Over \$12,000 | | |
| 6. Suburb of a medium city | 6. I don't know | | |
| 7. Large city (Over 500,000) | | | |
| 8. Suburb of a large city | | | |

APPENDIX D
ADVANCED STAFF DIRECTION GAME
COOPERATION VERSUS COMPETITION

The game, Cooperation Versus Competition, is widely used in management seminars and graduate programs. It has many variations and settings. The game may be adapted to suit the needs of the instruction. The particular idea for this adaptation of the game originated from a discussion with LTC A. L. Wehrle, Department of Command, Command and General Staff College.

(1) Purpose: To examine the atmosphere created by staff decisions based on the scenario of the TF South case study. TF South was a task force of Vietnamese and American forces employed in a combat role in South Vietnam.

(2) Classroom Setting: Several sets of opposing staffs of 3-5 students are designated. Each staff selects its own leader. An even number of staffs are required. (Staff 1 opposes Staff 1-A; Staff 2 opposes Staff 2-A, etc.).

(3) Strategies: Each staff presents a decision card which indicates a cooperative or a competitive approach to a staff problem concerning Vietnamese and American relations.

a. Decision cards (10 per staff)

Cooperative

1. Collocated staffs
2. Joint administrative channels

Competitive

1. Separate staffs
2. Separate administrative channels

Cooperative

3. Shared base camp
4. Joint supply system
5. Joint operations planning
6. Combined Artillery Command
7. Combined Intelligence Center
8. Joint combat operations
9. Combined TOC with Province
10. Collocated security elements

Competitive

3. Separate base camp
4. Separate supply camp
5. Separate operations planning
6. Separate Artillery Command
7. Separate Intelligence Center
8. Separate combat operations
9. Separate TOC systems
10. Separate security posts

(4) Scoring: Points are awarded for each staff decision.

The point value for each cooperative (Co) and each competitive (Cm) decision is:

<u>Staff 1</u>		<u>Staff 1-A</u>	
x =	Strategy	Strategy	x =
<u>Point Value</u>	<u>Selected</u>	<u>Selected</u>	<u>Point Value</u>
+3	Co	Co	+3
-3	Co	Cm	+6
+6	Cm	Co	-3
-6	Cm	Cm	-6

Point value for each iteration:

1. x value
2. x value
3. 2x value (a minus times a minus equals a minus.)

Negotiation may take place between staff leaders, if both opposing staffs agree to meet at a neutral table. Time limit is 5 minutes.

4. x value
5. x value
6. 2x value
7. x^2 value

Negotiation session required between staff leaders at a neutral table. Time limit is 5 minutes.

8. $2x$ value
9. x value
10. x^2 value

(5) Goal: Staff with most plus points is declared the winner.

(6) Administration: a) The two decision cards are distributed to each staff prior to each turn. b) The information in paragraph 4, along with the score board, is visible to all participants.

(7) Equipment: a) Ten decision cards for each staff. b) Two blackboards showing strategy and iteration point value and score board.

(8) Time: a) Game: 45-60 minutes. b) Feedback session: 30 minutes.